





Battle of Bunker's Hill.

BOOTH'S NEW PICTORIAL UNITED STATES.

A NEW

PICTORIAL HISTORY

OF THE

UNITED STATES

OF

AMERICA.

WITH QUESTIONS FOR SCHOOLS.

BY J. B. BOOTH.

“ Here the free spirit of mankind at length,
Throws its last fetters off; and who shall place
A limit to the Giant's unchain'd strength,
Or curb his swiftness in the forward race.”

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A good maxim is never out of season.
Better to be alone, than in bad company.
Cheerfulness is perfectly consistent with piety.
Do nothing you would wish to conceal.
Everybody's business is nobody's business.
Fear not death so much, as an evil course of life.
Good words cost nothing, but are worth much.
He who resolves to amend, has God on his side.
If the counsel be good, no matter who gave it.
Judge not of men or things at first sight.
Keep good company, and be one of the number.
Let not your tongue cut your throat.
Malice seldom wants a mark to shoot at.
Never talk without saying something.
One vice is more expensive than many virtues.
Pardon is the most glorious kind of revenge.
Quick landlords make careful tenants.
Rome was not built in a day.
Sometimes words wound more than swords.
The mob hath many heads, but no brains.
Unskilful workmen quarrel with their tools.
Vows made in storms are forgotten in calms.
Weigh right, if you sell dear.
Xerxes the Great did die, and so must you and I
Youth is the season for improvement.
Zeno, of all virtues, made choice of silence.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1854

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Sailing of Columbus.

CHAPTER I.

THE DISCOVERY.

*The Northmen.—Columbus.—Vespucci.—The Cabots.
—Ponce de Leon.—Verrazani.—Gomez.—Cartier.
—De Soto.—Ribault.—Frobisher.—Drake.—Gilbert.*

It has been believed by many that America was not unknown to the ancients; and from certain passages in the works of some of the writers of antiquity, as well as from the coincidences in the languages and customs of the nations of the old and new continent, plausible reasons have been advanced in favour of this theory. Whatever knowledge, however, the inhabitants of Europe possessed of America, no traces of it existed at the period of the revival of letters; and it was generally

supposed that the Canaries, or Fortunate Islands, formed the western boundary of their world.

Towards the end of the tenth or the beginning of the eleventh century, the northern coast of America was discovered by the Northmen, who attempted to colonize it; but the colonists, being neglected by the mother country, were soon either exterminated by the hostilities of the savages by whom they were surrounded, or driven to preserve their lives by amalgamating with them.

For the knowledge of this great continent now possessed by the civilized world, we are, however, indebted to the genius and enterprise of Christoval Colon, a native of Genoa, better known to us by the name of Christopher Columbus*. From a long and close application to the study of Geography, this great man had obtained a knowledge of the true figure of the earth, far beyond what was common to the age in which he lived. Another continent, he believed, necessarily, existed to complete the balance of the terraqueous globe; but he erroneously conceived it to be connected with that of India, or a continuation of the same continent. This error arose from the construction of the maps of that period, which represented the oriental countries of Asia as stretching vastly farther to the east than actual observation has proved them to extend. Having fully satisfied himself of the theoretical truth of his system, his adventurous spirit made him eager to verify it by experiment. For this purpose he applied to the senate of Genoa, developing his views, and representing the advantages which would accrue to the republic from the possession of a new route to the great source of opulence. The Genoese, however, treated the idea as absurd and chimerical, and rejected the proposal with contempt. Although disappointed in this first attempt, Columbus was not discouraged. He made application to the court of Portugal, which had, in that age, greatly distinguished

* His real name was Colomb, but he latinized it into Columbus, and after his adoption by Spain, changed it according to the language of that country to Colon.

itself by favouring the spirit of discovery along the African coast. Here he met with an additional mortification, from an attempt to anticipate him in the enterprise, which, however, proved abortive at an early period. Disgusted with the treachery designed against him, he would not listen to the entreaties of the king of Portugal; but through his brother Bartholomew, he applied to Henry VII., of England, for support in his project. The voyage of Bartholomew was long, and the cautious prudence of the king great, so that he could not make known his favourable disposition to Columbus until the discovery was effected, and another snatched the wreath of glory which might have immortalized him.

As a last resource, Columbus now presented his scheme to the court of Spain. After eight years of anxious solicitation and contemptuous neglect, he at last obtained a gleam of royal favour on his bold and original project. The interest of Queen Isabella, who generously pledged her own jewels, that she might aid him, procured him three small vessels, with which he set sail from the port of Palos, in Andalusia, on the 3d of August, 1492. He steered directly for the Canaries, whence, after having refitted as well as he could, his crazy and ill-appointed flotilla, he again sailed on the 6th of September, keeping a due westerly course over an unknown ocean. Several days passed without a sight of land, and the anxieties of the sailors arising from this circumstance, were heightened by the variations of the compass, then first perceived. An open mutiny took place, which required all the courage and address of the great navigator to quell it. They pursued their course; but when thirty days had elapsed, without any indication of an approach to land, both officers and men joined in a second revolt.

Columbus was forced partially to give way to their remonstrances. He consented to return, if, after proceeding three days longer, nothing appeared to confirm his expectations. With these assurances they again proceeded, and, about midnight, on the 11th of October, Columbus, who was standing on the poop, discovered a



Landing of Columbus.

light ahead. Morning displayed the joyful sight of land ; and the sailors were now as ardent in their expressions of repentance and admiration, as they had before been insolent and ungovernable. The Island of St. Salvador, one of the Bahamas, was the first part of America where they had landed. From the rude poverty of the inhabitants, Columbus soon perceived that he was still at a distance from the shores of India. The island of Cuba was next discovered, and although no gold was found, the natives pointed to the east, where, in an island which they called Hayti, this metal was said to abound. Columbus proceeded in that direction, and discovered Hayti on the 6th of December. Here he found some specimens of gold ; and leaving some men to form a colony, he returned to Spain.

On his arrival, he immediately proceeded to court, where he was received with admiration and respect. The glory and benefit which promised to result from the discovery, rendered the government eager to forward his

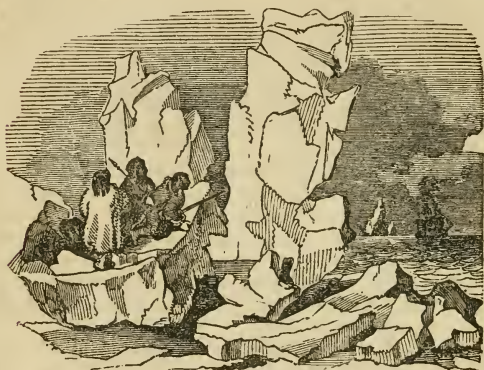
design. A fleet of seventeen sail was prepared ; and Columbus, who was now appointed viceroy of all the countries he should discover, departed on his second voyage, accompanied by many persons of rank and distinction. During the progress of this voyage, he discovered the islands of Dominica, Mariegalante, Guadeloupe, Montserrat, Antigua, Porto Rico, and Jamaica.

The success of this great man, did not fail to excite envy and intrigue against him, at the court of Spain. An officer was sent to act as a spy over his actions ; and Columbus soon found it necessary to return to Europe, for the purpose of defeating the machinations of his enemies. He afterwards made several voyages to the New World, and touched at the continent at the mouth of the river Orinoco, in South America ; not, however, before the continent had been discovered by an English navigator.

Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, a man of science and genius, who had sailed with Columbus, visited the continent in 1499, but made very little addition to the former discoveries. He, however, published on his return, the first description of the new countries that had appeared, and the injustice of mankind has given his name to the whole continent, an honour to which Columbus was so much more justly entitled.

The fame which Columbus had gained by his discoveries, spread through Europe, and inspired many with a similar spirit of enterprise. As early as the year 1495, John Cabot, a Venetian, obtained from Henry VII., of England, a commission for himself and his three sons, "to navigate all parts of the ocean, for the purpose of discovering islands, countries, regions, or provinces, either of Gentiles or Infidels which have been hitherto unknown to all Christian people ; with power to set up his standard and to take possession of the same as vassals of the crown of England." Such were the terms of this grant, which rivalled the bulls of the papal see, in the extent of the power and authority it professed to confer. In pursuance of this commission, John Cabot sailed from England in 1496, carrying with him his three

sons. His voyage was intended for the discovery of a north-west passage to China, but terminated by his falling in with the north side of the coast of Labrador, which he traced northerly as far as the 67th degree of latitude. In the succeeding year, he made a second voyage, on board a ship furnished by Henry VII., and accompanied by four small barks provided by the merchants of Bristol. Of this voyage, Sebastian, his second son, had the direction.



Cabot discovering the Continent.

On the 24th of June, 1497, he discovered a large island, to which he gave the name of Prima Vista, or the First Seen. It is now called Newfoundland. He then changed his course, steering to the north; but meeting with land in that direction, and finding no appearance of a passage to India, of which he was in search, he tacked about, and stood to the south, following the coast as far as Florida. In 1502, he again visited Newfoundland, and on his return carried several of the natives of the island home to England, where they were exhibited to Henry.

Eleven years afterwards, Ponce de Leon, a Spaniard, sailed from Puerto Rico northwardly, and discovered the continent in $30^{\circ} 8'$ north latitude. He landed on *Easter* day, whence, according to some, Florida derives its name; but, according to others, it was so called from the verdure and bloom, with which, at that season the country was covered. For many years, the name was applied to the whole of the continent.

Several years now elapsed without any further progress being made in the discovery of North America. The French, who had not displayed the same spirit of enterprise as their neighbours, entered the lists in 1524. In that year Francis I., sent John Verrazani, a Florentine, to America, for the purpose of making discoveries. He traversed and explored the coast from latitude 28 degrees to 50 degrees north; but in a second voyage, some time after, was unfortunately lost. In 1525, Stephen Gomez, the first Spaniard who came upon the North American coast, with a view to discovery, sailed from Groyn, in Spain, to Cuba and Florida, thence northward to Cape Razo, in 46 degrees north latitude, in search of a northern passage to the East Indies.

In the spring of 1534, a fleet was fitted out at St. Maloes, in France, by direction of Francis I., with the design of attempting discoveries. The command of the fleet was given to James Cartier. He arrived at Newfoundland, in May of the same year. Thence he sailed northwardly, and on the day of the festival of St. Lawrence, he found himself in the midst of a wide gulf, which he named the St. Lawrence. He gave the same name to the river which empties into it. In this voyage he sailed as far north as latitude 51 degrees, expecting in vain to find a passage to China. In the following year he sailed up the river St. Lawrence as far as the falls. He called the country New France; built a fort, in which he spent the winter, and returned the following spring to France.

On the 12th day of May, 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, with nine hundred men, besides sailors, sailed from Cuba, having for his object, the conquest of Florida.

On the 30th of May, he arrived at Spirito Santo, from whence he travelled into the interior, and died on the banks of the Mississippi. Cartier, in the next year, made a third voyage to Canada, built a fort, and began a settlement in 1541 or 1542, which he called *Charlebourg*, twelve miles above Port St. Croix. He soon afterwards broke up the settlement and sailed for Newfoundland. In 1542, Francis La Roche was sent to Canada, by the French king, with two hundred men, women, and children, but returned with his colony the next spring. In 1550, a number of adventurers sailed for Canada, but were not afterwards heard of. No other attempt appears to have been made to settle Canada during this century.

In 1562, a French squadron, under the command of John Ribault, arrived on the coast of Florida, and discovered a river, which is supposed to be the St. Mary's. As he coasted northward, he discovered several other rivers, one of which he named Port Royal. The attempts to find a north-eastern passage to India having failed, the English sent out, in 1576, Captain Frobisher, to find a north-western passage. The first land which he made was a cape, which he named Queen Elizabeth's Foreland. In coasting northerly, he discovered the straits which bear his name. The two following years, he made a second and third voyage, which produced no material discovery. In the same year, Sir Francis Drake, being on a cruise against the Spaniards in the Pacific ocean, landed on the continent of North America, northward of California, took possession of a harbour, and called the surrounding country New Albion. Three years afterwards, Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent from Queen Elizabeth for lands not yet possessed by any Christian prince, provided he would take possession within six years. In 1583, he sailed to Newfoundland, and took formal possession of the continent of North America, in the name of the crown of England. In pursuing his discoveries, he lost one of his ships on the shoals of Sable, and on his return home, a storm overtook him, in which he was unfortunately lost.



Settlement at Roanoke.

CHAPTER II.

Raleigh.—Gosnold.—Gilbert.—Weymouth.—Settlement of Virginia.—Smith.—Harvey.—Berkely.—Bacon's Rebellion.—Culpeper.—Old French War.—Washington.

IN 1584, a patent was granted by Queen Elizabeth to Sir Walter Raleigh, by the authority of which, he sent out a colony the next year. They arrived on the coast, and anchored a few leagues from Roanoke Island. Here they landed, and took possession of the country on behalf of Queen Elizabeth, calling it, in honour of her, Virginia. This colony returned to England in 1586, with Sir Francis Drake. Another attempt was

made in the year last mentioned, to establish a colony in Virginia, but with similar ill success. A third attempt, made in 1587, also failed: the colonists perished miserably; having either died of famine, or been massacred by the Indians.

In 1602, Bartholomew Gosnold, with thirty-two persons, made a voyage to *North Virginia*, as it was then called, and discovered and named Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard and Elizabeth Islands. Attempts were made to form a settlement in the vicinity, but without success; and it is believed that, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, there was not one European family settled on all the vast extent of coast, from Greenland to Florida.

In 1608, Bartholomew Gilbert, in a voyage to south Virginia, in search of the colony, which was left there in 1587, landed near Chesapeake Bay, where, in a skirmish with the Indians, he was slain. In the same year, the king of France granted by patent to M. de Mons, all the country from the 40th to the 46th degree of north latitude, under the name of *Acadia*.

In 1605, George's Islands and Pentecost harbour, were discovered by Captain Weymouth, who soon afterwards entered a large river, now supposed to be the Kennebeck or Penobscot. In 1606, James I. divided Virginia into two colonies, the northern and southern, which were granted to different companies. One of these companies was called the Plymouth Company, and to them was entrusted the settlement of New England. The other was called the London Company. This latter company, in December, 1606, sent out three ships from London, with one hundred and five persons, to effect a settlement in the country, granted to them by a patent by James I. After a tedious and circuitous passage, they entered Chesapeake Bay, in April, 1607.

On a peninsula, a little distance up James River, they began their settlement, calling the place Jamestown; both the river and town being named after James I. The colony soon began to experience some of the hardships incidental to new settlers. Their provisions be-



Smith showing the Compass.

gan to fail; and mismanagement, added to famine, brought the colony to the brink of ruin. To the great exertions and talents of Captain John Smith, one of the most distinguished persons connected with the early history of this country, the colony is indebted for its preservation. His resolute and persevering spirit prevailed on the adventurers not to abandon the settlement, while his activity and courage provided the means of continuance. An incident, which occurred during this period, has lent to his history the attractions of romance. While on an exploring journey in search of provisions, he was taken prisoner by a large party of Indians, who determined to put him to death. His captors, however, were diverted from their purpose by his showing them a pocket compass, and explaining its properties. He was conducted to the king Powhatan, who after a short detention condemned him to death. His head was placed upon a stone, and the savages were

about to beat out his brains with clubs, when Pocahontas, the daughter of the principal chief, Powhatan, after in vain imploring mercy for him, rushed forward, and resting her head upon that of the captive, and clasping his body with her arms, appeared determined to share his fate. Powhatan relented, and soon afterwards permitted Smith to return home. Two years afterwards, when the Indians had plotted the destruction of the whole colony, Pocahontas, faithful to the attachments she had formed, disclosed the plan to the English; and the Indians, finding them on their guard, abandoned the project.

Such was the distress of the colony, in 1610, that the survivors had actually embarked on their return to England, when Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor the preceding year, under a new charter, arrived with a supply of provisions, and one hundred and fifty men. Under this governor and his successor, the affairs of the infant settlement were administered with so much prudence and vigor, that it soon began to acquire solidity and strength. Useful industry succeeded to their previous habits of indolence; and, aided by a fertile soil, they were enabled to raise large stocks of provisions. In 1619, the first legislature was convened, eleven townships or boroughs, sending representatives, counties not then being laid off; from which circumstance the lower house was first called the house of *burgesses*, which name it retained until the revolution. About this period upwards of twelve hundred additional emigrants arrived, among whom were one hundred and fifty young women, who were sold to the planters for wives, at one hundred and fifty pounds of tobacco each. In 1620, were introduced the first negro slaves. They were imported in a Dutch vessel, and were soon followed by many others.

In 1622, a dreadful massacre of the settlers took place. They were surprised by the Indians, who destroyed three hundred and forty-seven persons. Fortunately, a friendly Indian gave previous notice to the inhabitants of Jamestown, in time to put them on their guard, other-

wise the whole settlement, probably, would have been destroyed. To the distress occasioned by this horrible act, succeeded a famine, which was, however, alleviated by the arrival of provisions from England. A reinforcement of settlers, arriving at the same time, a general war was levied against the savages; and, in a short time, most of the neighbouring tribes were exterminated.

On the 15th of July, 1624, James I. suspended the powers of the London company by proclamation, resumed the charter, and issued a special commission for the government of the colony. All legislative and executive powers were vested in these commissioners, from whose arbitrary regulations, the colony suffered severely. So oppressive was the government of Sir John Harvey, appointed in 1629, that the people seized and sent him to England, a prisoner. He was succeeded by Sir William Berkeley, who called an assembly of the burgesses, and governed the province with mildness and prudence.

At the commencement of the civil war in England, when the contest was so violent between the king and the parliament, as to bring Charles I. to the scaffold, the Virginians adhered to the cause of the monarch; and, refusing to acknowledge the authority of the commonwealth, a formidable armament was sent over by the parliament, in 1651, to reduce them to subjection. Unable to offer any effectual resistance, the Virginians were compelled to submit, but did not lay down their arms, until they had secured their most essential rights, by a solemn convention, entered into between the commissioners of the parliament, and the governor, council, and burgesses of Virginia. The principal stipulations were, for the enjoyment of the ancient limits of the colony, as granted by the charters of the former kings; for a free trade; an exemption from taxation; the exclusion of military force without the consent of the Grand Assembly; and the privilege of using the book of common prayer for one year, omitting those parts which relate to *kingship*. During the existence of the commonwealth

of England, the governors of Virginia were all elected by the assembly. In 1658, a severe conflict arose between the governor and council and the house of burgesses. The former having ordered a dissolution of the assembly, they peremptorily refused to be dissolved, and displaced the governor and all the council, but afterwards elected the same governor. On the death of Cromwell in 1658, his son Richard was acknowledged as his successor. But, he resigning in 1658, and it being uncertain what kind of government might be adopted in England, the assembly of Virginia, in March, 1660, declared, that, "there being in England no resident, absolute, and general confessed power," did expressly take the powers of government into their own hands, "until such a command and commission came out of England, as shall by the assembly be adjudged lawful." They then elected Sir William Berkeley, governor, with injunctions that he should govern according to the ancient laws of England and the established laws of the colony; directed that all writs be issued in the name of the Grand Assembly; and made it the duty of the governor to call an assembly once in two years, or oftener, if necessary; gave him the liberty of making choice of a secretary, and council of state, with the approbation of the assembly; restrained him from dissolving the assembly, without the consent of the majority of the house; all laws, inconsistent with the government then established, were repealed; and penalties imposed for speaking or acting in derogation of it. The religion of the Church of England was also declared to be the established religion of the colony; all ministers were ordered to *conform*, or were not permitted to "teach or preach publicly or privately;" and the governor and council were authorized to compel *non conformists* to leave the colony with all convenient speed.

The effects of the navigation act, and other measures of a similar nature, adopted about this time, were severely felt by the trade of Virginia. In addition to this cause of discontent, the landed proprietors were alarmed by the conduct of the king in granting to his courtiers large

tracts of land, the titles to which had been regularly vested in others. From these causes rose an insurrection memorable in the history of Virginia, and known by the name of Bacon's Rebellion.

Colonel Nathaniel Bacon, an eloquent and ambitious man, put himself at the head of the people who had assembled, with the ostensible object of engaging in hostilities against the Indians. An injudicious step on the part of the assembly, then sitting, in advising the governor to issue a proclamation of rebellion against him, determined their purpose. They marched to Jamestown, and, after dispersing the assembly, Bacon called a convention, and assumed the reigns of government. A civil war now ensued with all its horrors. Jamestown was burnt by Bacon's followers, and many parts of the colony were given up to pillage. At length, after several months of bloodshed and confusion, Bacon suddenly died. The loss of this man proved the ruin of his party. The people returned to their homes, and the authority of Berkeley was re-established. It was long, however, before the prosperity of Virginia was restored. Husbandry had been neglected, and licentious habits introduced, which many years of order did not eradicate. Soon after these events, Berkeley returned to England, and was succeeded by Lord Culpeper, who brought with him several bills, drawn up by the ministry in England, to which he required the assent of the legislature, on pain of being treated as rebels. The object of these acts, which were ratified, was the increase of his official emoluments; and the effect was the oppression and impoverishment of the people. During the reign of Charles II., and his successor James, Virginia suffered in common with her sister colonies, from the endeavours of the Stuarts, to extend their despotic system across the Atlantic, and rejoiced in the change of government which drove them from the throne. In 1683, during the administration of Lord Culpeper, printing was prohibited in Virginia.

For a considerable period after the revolution of 1688, Virginia enjoyed great internal tranquillity, and experi-

enced nothing to interrupt her growth. In the year 1732, she gave birth to the most illustrious of her sons, the great statesman and patriot, who was destined afterwards to achieve the independence of all the colonies. During the wars between France and England, prior to 1754, her local situation exempted her from hostilities. From 1754 to 1758, when the French began to put into operation their schemes for uniting Canada and Louisiana, the frontiers of Virginia were harassed by incursions of French and Indian parties, to repel which, a regiment was raised, in which Washington first distinguished himself. On the conclusion of peace, when the British attempted to raise a revenue within the colonies, the statesmen of Virginia were among the first to raise the voice of opposition. The eloquence and talents of her orators contributed greatly to excite public feeling on this occasion. The services and sufferings of Virginia, in the war of the revolution, were probably as great as those of any other state; and in Virginia, the last important measure of the war took place, in the surrender of Cornwallis.



John Smith.



Settlement of Quebec.

CHAPTER III.

Settlement of Quebec.—Hudson.—Settlement of New York.—Argall.—Van Twiller.—Kieft.—Stuyvesant.—Nicholls.—Lovelace.—Andros.—Leisler.—Slougher.—Massacre at Schenectady.—French War.

IN 1608, M. de Champlain sailed up the St. Lawrence, and settled Quebec. In 1608 or 1609, Henry Hudson, a native of England, but at that time in the service of the Dutch East India Company, discovered and sailed up the noble river which still bears his name. The earliest effectual settlement in this state was made by the Dutch, in 1613, on the island of Manhattan, now called, New York. Their jurisdiction, however, was soon interrupted; for, in 1614, Captain Argall, returning to Virginia from Nova Scotia, visited the Hudson, when the Dutch, being unable to offer resistance, submitted to the

English government. The next year, a number of ships arrived from Holland, and restored the Dutch authority. The settlers began to fortify themselves on the island, which is now covered by the city of New York, and extended their possessions in a few years to the Delaware and Connecticut rivers. In 1621, the States General made a grant of the country, by the name of New Netherlands, to the West India Company. The first governor under the company, was Wouter Van Twiller, who arrived at Fort Amsterdam, as New York was then called, in 1629. William Kieft, the second governor, was engaged in frequent disputes with the neighbouring colonies. He protested, without success, against what he considered the encroachments of the English in Connecticut, and on Long Island; and, in 1640, broke up their settlements at Oyster Bay by force.

Peter Stuyvesant was the third and last governor of the New Netherlands. His administration was, like that of his predecessor, a period of contest, both of words and weapons. The people of New England on the east, and the Marylanders and Swedes to the south and west, kept him constantly employed either in negotiation or warlike enterprises. An agreement was, however, made respecting boundaries, with the people of Connecticut; and the Swedes on the Delaware were compelled to submit to his authority; but the entire Dutch government in North America, soon afterwards passed away.

In 1664, Charles II., of England, urged by the representations of the neighbouring English colonies, granted to his brother, the duke of York, a patent for a large tract of country, including New York and New Jersey, and provided him with the means of obtaining possession of it. A considerable force, under the command of Colonel Nicholls, arrived in the harbour of New York, in August, 1664, and summoned the province to surrender to the British crown, offering the inhabitants protection in their persons and estates. Governor Stuyvesant, an old and brave soldier, determined to make all the defence of which the place was capable, and, aware of the pacific disposition of the inhabitants, refused them a sight of the

summons, lest the easy terms offered should induce them to capitulate. Nicholls, however, published a proclamation, which wrought so much upon the people, that the governor, finding himself unsupported, was reluctantly obliged to yield. The English forces took possession, first of the town of New York, and afterwards of Fort Orange, on the Hudson, which last received the name of Albany, after one of the titles of the duke of York. An expedition was immediately sent to the Delaware; and, taking possession of the forts and places in that quarter, the English jurisdiction was extended and connected over New York and New Jersey.

The authority of Nicholls over New York was supreme; but it appears to have been exercised with justice and moderation. He was succeeded by Colonel Lovelace, under whose administration the Dutch again obtained a short-lived ascendancy. In 1673, some Dutch ships arrived at Staten Island; the commander, finding the forts not in a state of defence, landed a body of men, who entered the town without resistance. The whole province renewed the oath of allegiance to the states general, only to be absolved from it again in a short time; for, on the conclusion of the treaty of peace, in 1674, between Holland and England, a formal cession of the whole territory was made to the latter. The Duke of York, on this event obtained from the king a new patent for the same tract of country, which had been granted, in 1664, and constituted Sir Edmund Andros governor-general. Under the administration of this tyrannical deputy, New York was governed for several years as a conquered country, without any other laws than such as were ordained by his sole authority. At length, in 1683, permission was given to elect representatives; and the people, for the first time, took a part in the government. The oppressive measures of James II. and his representative Andros, predisposed the inhabitants of New York, in favour of the change, which was then taking place in England. On the news of the imprisonment of Andros, by the people of Boston, Leisler, a captain of militia, collected a body

of men, and seized the port of New York, in the name of the Prince of Orange. The Lieutenant-governor, Nicholson, absconded, and Leisler, who had been joined by several officers of militia, assumed the chief command of the province. The people of the southern part of the colony submitted readily to his authority; but those of Albany and its neighbourhood, though professing to adhere to William and Mary, refused to acknowledge the government of Leisler. A force was therefore sent against Albany, which compelled the opposition to submit. In this state of things, Colonel Sloughter arrived from England, with a commission from King William, as governor of the province. Leisler, who had become intoxicated by success, refused to surrender his authority, and attempted to hold out the fort against the English commissioner. He was, however, deserted by his party; apprehended with some of his adherents; and, together with his son, was condemned to death and executed.

The English revolution was productive of great advantages to New York. An assembly was called by the governor; and a bill of rights formed, by which the trial by jury, and an exemption from all taxes, not imposed by the representatives of the people, were established. For many years the province enjoyed repose, and made rapid advances in prosperity and population. In the wars which arose with the French of Canada, and the frontier Indians, at the conclusion of the seventeenth century, the province embarked with no less zeal than the other colonies, and suffered severely in the conflict. Repeated incursions by the savages, in the pay of the French, rendered the frontier settlements a scene of desolation and bloodshed. In 1690, in the dead of night and winter, a sudden attack was made on the town of Schenectady, near Albany, and an indiscriminate massacre of the inhabitants took place. Sixty-seven persons were put to death, and many lost their lives or their limbs, in their flight to Albany. Harassed by these incursions, the people of New York, joined readily in the attempts to effect the reduction of Canada. In 1709,

and again in 1711, they contributed largely in men and money, to aid the British expedition, which failed through the incapacity of the British commanders.



Defeat of Dieskau.

The frontiers of New York were again the theatre of hostilities, in the war which ended in 1763. In 1755, a French army, under Dieskau, invaded the province from Montreal, and was met by a body of New England and New York troops, under Sir William Johnson, one of the council of New York. A warm engagement ensued, which ended in the repulse of the French, with great loss on both sides. In 1757, Fort William Henry, on Lake George, was taken by Montcalm. In the succeeding year, an unsuccessful attack was made on the French at Fort Ticonderoga, by General Abercrombie. In 1759, however, General Amherst captured Ticonderoga and Crown Point; and General Johnson, after

defeating a French army, took Fort Niagara. The surrender of Canada, in 1760, relieved the province from the chief impediment in the way of its advancing importance.

Between this period and the memorable era of independence, we meet with few important events to narrate in the history of New York. The people of this colony opposed as strenuous a resistance to the stamp act, of 1765, and to the subsequent measures of the British government, as their sister provinces. In 1767, the assembly refusing to provide quarters for the British troops, according to an act of parliament, a bill was passed for restraining the assembly from proceeding in business, until they had complied with the act. This severe and oppressive measure, naturally excited indignation throughout the continent. In 1769, resolutions were passed by the assembly, similar to those of the other assemblies, upon the subject of the attempt of the British government to impose taxes on the colonies. The Declaration of Independence was assented to by the New York delegates in Congress; but many of the principal inhabitants were inclined to favour the royal cause. The city of New York was taken possession of by the British army, early in the contest, and remained in their possession until the treaty of peace. The state, generally, was the theatre of hostilities, during the greater part of the war.





Arms of Massachusetts.

CHAPTER IV.

*Settlement of Massachusetts.—The Pilgrims—Carver.
—Charles II.—James II.—Andros.—William and
Mary.—Old French War.—The Stamp Act.*

To the Plymouth company was entrusted the colonization of the country lying between the 38th and 45th degrees of north latitude. This company was unfortunate in its early attempts. Its first ship was captured by the Spaniards. A party of about one hundred persons landed safely in 1607, but were so much reduced in number by the severity of the winter, and the diseases of new settlements, that in the succeeding spring they abandoned the country, and several years elapsed before the company renewed the undertaking. Religious fervour, however, effected what commercial enterprise had failed to accomplish. In 1620, a congregation of English puritans, whom oppression had driven to Holland,

obtained from the London Company, a grant of lands within their charter, and, to the number of one hundred and one, sailed from Plymouth for the river Hudson, on whose banks they intended to settle. They were carried farther north, however, and landed near Cape Cod, at a place, to which they gave the name of New Plymouth. Their first care was to form a system of civil government. They chose John Carver for their governor, and, to aid him in the discharge of his duties, appointed an assistant. The number of assistants was increased some years afterwards to seven. The supreme power resided in the whole body of the inhabitants, and



Landing of the Pilgrims.

it was not until 1639, that they established a house of representatives. In imitation of the primitive Christians, they threw all their property into a common stock; but the experience of the mischiefs arising from this political copartnership, soon induced them to relinquish it. In 1630, they obtained from the Plymouth Company, a grant of the land on which they had settled.

The settlement of Massachusetts did not advance with much rapidity for some years, although detached parties, driven over by the persecutions of the high church, established themselves in different places. Salem was the first permanent town erected, and shortly afterwards Charlestown was built. A fresh spring was given to the exertions of the Plymouth Company, by the grant of a new royal charter in 1628, and the removal of the powers of government to New England, which had been previously exercised in the mother country. The number of emigrants now began to be considerable. In July, 1630, seventeen ships arrived at Salem with fifteen



Settlement of Boston.

hundred persons, by some of whom, the foundation of Boston was laid. The early years of the new colony were passed in a complication of troubles. The sufferings which they experienced from the severity of the climate, and the difficulties of the soil, were aggravated by the hostility of the natives, and the equally hostile attempts of the British government upon their civil and religious freedom, by contests with their French neighbours in the north, and by their own mistaken policy and lamentable dissensions. The civil policy of the settlement was not at all to the taste of the English monarchs of the Stuart line. In 1635, Charles I. appointed commissioners, with absolute power, "to make laws and constitutions, concerning either the state, public, or the utility of individuals." Two years after this, he forbade emigration to the plantations, to all who should not conform to the discipline of the church of England; and in 1638, a *quo warranto* was issued against Massachusetts, upon which judgment was given against the colonies, without affording them a hearing. The state of affairs at home, however, prevented any further prosecution of these designs, on the part of the British government.

The experience of their own sufferings in England, from religious persecution, unfortunately taught the colonists no lesson of toleration. Scarcely had they organized themselves, when they began to put in practice a similar mode of compelling religious uniformity. One of the first ordinances of the general court, excluded from political suffrage, all who did not profess the strictest doctrines of their creed. In 1635, the famous dispute arose respecting the covenant of *grace*, and the covenant of *works*, and those who espoused the side of the latter, being the most numerous, resorted to the ancient mode of glorifying God, by persecuting their opponents. The leaders of the antinomian party were banished, and thus contributed to the settlement of Rhode Island, which had been begun the preceding year, by Roger Williams, and a party exiled for a similar cause.

In 1636, the Pequods sought to destroy the colony, by forming an alliance with the Narragansetts. This mea-



Massacre of the Pequods.

sure was defeated by the courage and address of Roger Williams, who succeeded in detaching the Narragansetts from the confederacy. The Pequods were then attacked by some troops from Connecticut, who surprised and burnt their settlement, and put nearly the whole tribe to death.

The downfall of monarchy in England, checked the progress of emigration, by securing protection to the puritan religion at home, but was in some other respects advantageous to the colonies of New England. Their civil liberties were more safe, and some extraordinary privileges were granted to their commerce. Under the protection of the republican administration in the mother country, their wealth and population increased with accelerated rapidity. The prospect of hostilities with the Indians, however, compelled Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, to form an offensive

union. The confederacy seems to have had reference to no other object, and each colony retained its separate jurisdiction. On the restoration of Charles II., the colony of Massachusetts was found to increase in numbers and importance to such a degree, that the anxiety of the monarch was naturally awakened lest an impression should be made in favour of the efficacy of a democratic administration. Accordingly, commissioners were appointed to superintend affairs, with great powers of control, to which the assembly of Massachusetts were ill disposed to submit. Altercations ensued; the navigation act was enforced against the colony, and the destruction of its charter was resolved upon; but death marred the execution of this project by Charles II.

His successor, James II., was equally hostile to the principles of freedom, and prosecuted the designs of his brother with greater obstinacy. He determined to unite all the provinces of New England into one government, under a president and council, and found a fit agent for his purpose in Sir Edmund Andros. After dissolving the governments of Connecticut and Rhode Island, the new president proceeded to Massachusetts, where he compelled a temporary submission. Remonstrances were, in vain, made to James II. The infatuated monarch was determined to crush the spirit of freedom in both hemispheres, and, in furtherance of his designs, annexed New York and New Jersey to the union already formed. The government of Andros expired with that of his royal master. A vague report having reached Boston of the proceedings in England on the landing of the Prince of Orange, the people rose without any previous concert, seized and imprisoned Andros and his adherents, and restored the former order of things. The intelligence of the abdication of James being received, William and Mary were proclaimed at Boston, with great rejoicings.

The people of Massachusetts, however, derived no great advantages from the change of government. They petitioned for the restoration of their charter, which the judges of Charles II. had declared to be forfeited; but

they found, to their dissatisfaction, that they were not to expect the same liberal provisions as before. The king was to appoint the governor, by whom the assembly was to be called, prorogued, or dissolved, and most officers appointed. By the new charter, the colony of Plymouth was now finally united to Massachusetts. The war which broke out in Europe soon afterwards, extended its ravages to New England. The Indians were incited by the French of Canada to make inroads upon the settlements, and the colonists, in return, wasted their wealth and strength in ill managed expeditions against the French provinces. We find that Massachusetts contributed, in 1690, an armament of seven vessels and eight hundred men, for an expedition against Port Royal, which miscarried, through the blunders of the royal governor; and, in the same year, united with Connecticut in raising a body of troops, amounting to two thousand men, for an attack on Quebec, which failed from the same cause. Similar exertions were made, and attended with similar results, until the termination of the war by the treaty of Ryswick. When the war again broke out in Europe, Massachusetts was not less prominent in her contributions to the common cause.

In 1708, twelve hundred men were raised for another abortive attempt upon Canada; and in 1711, besides sending a considerable armament to assist in a formidable expedition against Quebec, this province issued 40,000*l.* in bills of credit. While contributing thus strenuously to the support of the wars undertaken by England, the assembly of Massachusetts was warmly engaged in contests with the royal governor. Every session presented the same scene of altercation, and public business was with difficulty transacted, through the determination of the representatives not to give a fixed salary to their governors, which the latter were resolved to obtain.

In 1745, France and England being again involved in hostilities, an expedition against the strong fortification of Louisbourg was projected in Massachusetts. A power-

ful armament was prepared, principally by this province, and the command of the land forces given to Colonel Pepperel, a rich merchant. After an extraordinary display of bravery and skill, on the part of the assailants, the place was surrendered. The British officers present claimed all the merit of the affair, and Louisbourg was restored to France at the conclusion of the war, to the no small mortification of the New Englanders. In the war which ended in the conquest of Canada, Massachusetts surpassed her former exertions. In the year 1757, she had 7000 men in the field, and maintained this number until the peace of 1763.

Massachusetts was, in the early part of the Revolution, the theatre of hostilities, by which she suffered much, while she contributed greatly, by her exertions, to the successful issue of the conflict.

In all periods of the history of Massachusetts, one of the great sources of wealth has been the fisheries on her coast.





Gustavus Adolphus.

CHAPTER V.

Settlement of Delaware.—Printz.—Risingh.—Stuyvesant.—Carr.—Penn.—French War.

THE first European settlers in the territory which now composes the state of Delaware, were the Swedes and Fins. The region from which they emigrated, after having, in the early ages of the Christian era, covered Europe with its superabundant population, has contributed remarkably little to the settlement of America. Originally few in number, and successively reduced by the Dutch and English, the adventurers from the

northern hive have left scanty memorials of their existence as a distinct colony.

The year 1627, was the epoch of the earliest permanent settlement in this province. Delaware Bay had been previously visited by trading vessels from the north of Europe, whose reports of the fertility and beauty of the country excited, in the breast of Gustavus Adolphus, a desire to form a colony of his subjects there. Accordingly, in 1626, an association, composed of many of the nobility, and the principal officers of government, together with persons of all classes, was formed for this purpose, and denominated the West India Company. In the succeeding year they despatched a body of settlers to the scene of the intended colony. The emigrants landed at the southern Cape of the Delaware, now called Cape Henlopen, but which received from them the name of Point Paradise. To the country on both sides of the Delaware, they gave the appellation of Nova Suecia. An amicable intercourse was opened with the Indians; and, by voluntary cession from the people, the new comers extended their acquisitions to a considerable distance up the river.

In 1630, a fort was built by the Swedes at Hoarkill, now called Lewistown; and, in the succeeding year, they erected another near the present site of Wilmington, on a creek, to which they gave the name of their celebrated queen, Christina. Settlements were also formed as high up as Chester and Tinicum, in the present state of Pennsylvania. The occupation of these settlements, however, by this little colony, was not destined to be a tranquil one.

The bay and river on which the Swedes had planted themselves, were discovered by Hudson, then sailing in the Dutch service, a year previous to the visit of Lord Delaware, from whom they have derived their present name. The Dutch, consequently, laid claim to the country, and included in their pretensions all the territory between the North and South Rivers, the latter being the name they bestowed on the Delaware. They contented themselves, however, with establishing a

colony on the North River, and with a few trading settlements on the east bank of the Delaware, until the progress of the Swedes, on the western bank, alarmed them for the validity of their title. A controversy then arose on the subject of right. The Swedes, who had obtained from Charles II. a cession of the British claim, were not disposed to yield their settlements. Their governor, Printz, however, suffered the Dutch to erect a fort, in 1651, on the spot where Newcastle now stands by which means they obtained the command of the navigation of the river. Three years afterwards Governor Risingh, who succeeded Printz, attacked this fort by surprise, and carried it. This produced open hostilities; and in 1655, the Dutch, under the command of Peter Stuyvesant, governor of New Amsterdam, arrived in the Delaware, to the number of seven hundred. Fort Casimir, at Newcastle, was retaken, and shortly afterwards, the whole territory submitted. Here ended the Swedish power, on the continent of America. The Swedish officers, and most of the principal inhabitants, were taken prisoners and sent to Holland; but the common people were suffered to remain in their possessions, on their submission to the conquerors. The colony was incorporated with that of New Amsterdam, under the general title of the New Netherlands; and the seat of the petty government of the time, was fixed at New Amstel, or Newcastle.

The Dutch had hardly established their power over the Swedes, when they found their title questioned by the English, of Maryland. Lord Baltimore, the proprietary of that province, conceiving that his boundary was the 40th degree of north latitude, sent a commission to Newcastle, ordering the Dutch governor to remove beyond that limit. This command was not obeyed, and a war of manifestoes and proclamations broke out, and was continued without effect for some time. The Dutch power on the Delaware, however, was not of long continuance.

In March, 1664, Charles II. granted, by patent, to his brother the duke of York, all that part of the continent

of North America, lying between the west side of the Connecticut river, and the east side of the Delaware; and prepared an armament to take possession of the country. In September, of the same year, the whole of the Dutch possessions on the Hudson were surrendered to the English, under Colonel Nicholls; and in the succeeding month, an expedition, under Sir Robert Carr, compelled the settlements on the Delaware to submit to the British arms. Thus, after a short dominion of nine years, was suspended the Dutch authority on the western bank of the Delaware.

The administration of affairs was now committed to the hands of Captain Carr, with whom Colonel Nicholls associated a council of six of the principal persons. Five years afterwards, a commission of justice was appointed, with power to try all matters in differences under the sum of ten pounds; but, for all controversies above that sum, and all criminal proceedings, the jurisdiction was reserved to the government at New York. The capture of New York, by the Dutch, in 1673, revived their authority for a brief period on the Delaware. Deputies were sent to New York, declaring the adhesion of the settlements at New Amstel, and other places; in return for which, Anthony Color was appointed governor, by the "honourable and awful council of war of the New Netherlands." The treaty of peace of 1674, however, by which the whole country was restored to the English, put a final period to the Dutch government. In the same year, Charles II., by a new patent, granted to the duke of York all the country called by the Dutch New Netherlands, of which the settlements on the western bank of the Delaware formed a part; and from this period, to the year 1682, the territory of the present state was under the jurisdiction of the government of New York.

The original grant to William Penn, made in the year 1680, did not comprehend any territory, south of a circle drawn at twelve miles distance from Newcastle, northward; but, in 1682, the whole country to Cape Henlopen was conveyed to him by the duke of York. The present

state of Delaware was then, as now, divided into three counties, Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex; and from this period to the American Revolution, was generally called "the three lower counties upon Delaware." The 24th of October, 1682, will be memorable for the landing of William Penn, at Newcastle, when he proceeded to take possession of the country. Four months afterwards, at an assembly convened at Upland, an act of union was passed, by which the three lower counties were annexed to the province of Pennsylvania. The Dutch and Swedes residing within the limits of the new proprietor's dominions, were naturalized, and appear to have yielded a cheerful obedience to his government. We find them, more especially the latter, occupying public offices in the province, as well as the territories.

From 1682 to 1703, the representatives of Delaware and Pennsylvania met in one legislature. The union, however, which subjected both to the same charges, had never been satisfactory to the former. In 1701, a disagreement took place, which required all the authority and influence of the proprietary to subdue. The reconciliation was only a temporary one; and two years afterwards a separation into distinct assemblies took place by mutual consent, and has remained permanent. The same governor, however, presided over both provinces. In 1704, the first local assembly met at Newcastle, and shortly afterwards passed an act for building a fort at that place, and imposing duties on vessels passing it, which was considered an infraction of the charter of Pennsylvania. Serious consequences seemed likely to ensue; but the resolute conduct of some of the merchants of Philadelphia, rendered the act nugatory, and after some ineffectual attempts to enforce it, the project was abandoned. Nothing important is recorded of the history of the three lower counties, between the beginning and middle of the eighteenth century. In 1760, the long-contested dispute between the proprietaries of Pennsylvania and Maryland, respecting the boundaries of the counties upon Delaware, was finally settled, and the line which was then agreed upon, has

since remained undisturbed. In the war which ended with the surrender of Canada, in 1763, Delaware contributed her full proportion of exertions to co-operate with the parent country; and, as a reimbursement for her extraordinary expenses, the parliament granted her 4000*l.* sterling, a sum quite insufficient for the purpose.

Delaware remained under the government of the proprietary of Pennsylvania, though with a separate legislature, until the year 1775. The dependence was, however, merely nominal; for we find the territory represented as a distinct province in the congress which convened at Philadelphia in 1765, on occasion of the stamp act. Its delegates were then Thomas McKean and Cæsar Rodney. At length, in April, 1775, Richard Penn, then proprietary of Pennsylvania, resigned his jurisdiction over the lower counties; and in the September of the following year, 1776, the dominion of Great Britain having been thrown off, a convention of representatives, chosen for the purpose, formed a constitution, and the territory, taking the name of Delaware, became a free and independent state. In the revolutionary war, Delaware laboured and suffered greatly. No part of the continent contributed better troops, or was more steadfast in the common cause, than this little state. The Delaware regiment was distinguished for its bravery and efficiency among the regular forces.





King Philip.

CHAPTER VI.

Settlement of Connecticut.

CONNECTICUT was first settled by emigrants from Massachusetts. So early as the year 1634, the inhabitants of that colony began to feel straitened by its boundaries, and having obtained the permission of the general court, a number of families established themselves on the banks of the Connecticut River. They were followed some time afterwards by emigrants from England, who settled on a different spot; and thus two colonies arose, which were called Connecticut and New Haven. They continued under distinct governments, until the year

1662, when the royal charter consolidated them under the general name of Connecticut. A constitution was formed for themselves, by the people of the original province of Connecticut, in 1639. In the same year the people of New Haven met in convention, and resolved that the Scriptures afforded a perfect and sufficient rule for civil government.

In the incidents of their early annals, these settlements are closely similar. The people of both were exposed to the same rigorous climate, suffered alike from want of food and shelter, laboured with the same difficulties, in the clearing of the soil, and maintained the same harassing contest with the neighbouring savages. In 1673, the first confederation was formed in this country, by the league of the two colonies of Connecticut with those of Massachusetts and Plymouth, under the name of the United Colonies of New England.

On the restoration of Charles II. to the English throne, a charter, remarkable for its republican features, was granted to Connecticut, and included under the same government the colony of New Haven. So favourable was this instrument to civil liberty, that the people were content to be governed by it during all the Revolution; and, notwithstanding the agitations of subsequent years, until a very recent period. Shortly after the establishment of this government, the colony was relieved from two great sources of anxiety and evil. The Dutch at New York, who had laid claim to a great part of Connecticut, and with whom an irritating contest, more however of words than weapons, had been maintained, were conquered by an English expedition. A fierce and bloody war with the Indians was terminated by their entire subjugation, and the death of their leader, Philip, the most skilful and persevering enemy the settlers of New England ever encountered. Scarcely, however, did the colony begin to taste the sweets of peace, when new troubles arose. The arrogant and avaricious disposition of the English govern-

ment, which in the end produced a separation of the colonies, displayed itself thus early in their annals.

In 1685, a *quo warranto* was issued against Connecticut, and in the succeeding year similar process was again issued, with the hope of compelling a surrender of the charter. The assembly was, however, not disposed to yield privileges bought with so much hardship and blood. Sir Edmund Andros, who had been appointed governor of New England, finding that the charter could not be obtained, declared that the government was taken into the hands of the king, and proceeded to administer it in his name. Without an assembly, he taxed the people at his pleasure; compelled them to take out patents for their lands at a great expense; and, in short, grievously oppressed them in every mode, and enriched himself and his followers. His reign was fortunately not destined to continue long. The Revolution which gave constitutional freedom to England in 1688, was equally happy for the liberties of America. The colonies were too feeble to contend with the crown of England at that time, and the ruin of their free institutions would probably have been completed, had the Stuarts continued to reign. Before official intelligence of the event reached Connecticut, the people had resumed the government into their hands, and deposed Andros, who was imprisoned in Boston.

The ancient charter of Connecticut was re-established on the accession of William and Mary. It had never been surrendered; and considerable address was displayed, during the oppressive government of Andros, to conceal it. But the satisfaction of the people was soon lessened by a new attack on one of their most essential rights. The government of New York was given to a Colonel Fletcher, with authority to command the militia of Connecticut and the neighbouring provinces. The legislature of Connecticut refused to acknowledge his right, as, by the charter, the command of their militia was given to the colony. A warm verbal dispute ensued. Fletcher visited Hartford, where he attempted to enforce his authority, but was so manfully resisted

that he was glad to abandon his design and return to New York; and shortly afterwards the king in council determined in favour of the province, upon a petition, praying that their right to the command might be confirmed. Six years after this event another attempt was made upon the chartered rights of the province, with similar ill-success. While thus harassed by repeated attempts upon her civil rights, Connecticut, like the other provinces, was compelled to engage in the unnecessary contests which the mother country maintained with France, and to contribute her blood and treasure in support of the weak and ill-contrived expeditions that were sent forth by the English against Canada. In 1709, great exertions were made to assist an enterprise undertaken for this purpose. The armament expected from England, however, did not arrive, and the expedition was thus defeated in the outset. In the succeeding year, another levy of men and money was made; troops were sent out from England, but the attempt failed through the blunders of the English commanders. In 1745, Connecticut contributed liberally in men and money to the campaign which produced the capture of Louisbourg; and in the succeeding war which terminated in the conquest of Canada, her exertions were out of proportion to her population and strength. In 1758, no fewer than five thousand men were voted by the legislature, who were equipped and ready for the field in a short time; and at one period six thousand troops from Connecticut were in actual service. The expenses incurred in the war from 1755 to 1762, by this province, amounted to the great sum of four hundred thousand pounds sterling beyond what was allowed her by the British parliament.

A short period of repose succeeding, Connecticut participated in the prosperity enjoyed by the provinces in general, and made rapid advances in population and wealth. When the British government, however, attempted to put in execution its design of collecting a revenue from its colonies, this province was one of the most zealous in opposition. The continuance of the tax

upon tea, and some other articles of consumption, produced a deep feeling of hostility towards Britain. Committees of correspondence acted in concert with those of Massachusetts; and the militia of the province furnished a considerable force for the relief of Boston. During the Revolutionary war, Connecticut suffered little from the actual presence of the enemy, though she contributed her due proportion to the successful issue of the conflict.

CHAPTER VII.

Settlement of Maryland.—Settlement of Rhode Island.

MARYLAND was the first province and the third English colony planted in North America. In 1631, William Clayborne obtained from Charles I. a license to trade with those parts of America, for which a patent had not been already granted. Availing himself of this permission, he planted a small colony on Kent Island, nearly opposite to the present town of Annapolis. About the same time, George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, an eminent statesman, who had been secretary to James I., and a professor of the Roman Catholic religion, made a voyage to Virginia, with a view to form a settlement of persons of the same religious persuasion, whom the intolerant policy of the prevailing party in England forbade to enjoy tranquillity at home. His views were however counteracted in Virginia, and he was destined to be the founder of an independent colony. Meeting with an unwelcome reception in Virginia, he fixed his attention on the territory north of the Potomac, and as soon as he returned to England, obtained a grant of it from Charles I. Before a patent could be made out, however, he died, leaving his son, Cecil Calvert, to complete the design.

To this second Lord Baltimore the patent was granted, on the 20th of June, 1632. The territory conveyed,



Cecil Calvert.

was from the Potomac to the 40th degree of north latitude, being part of what had been previously conveyed to the Virginia company. But subsequently to granting the charter of Pennsylvania, the address of William Penn, and the despotic injustice of James II. and his council, stripped Lord Baltimore of what now forms the state of Delaware, and similar address of Penn obtained a contract from the proprietary of Maryland, under which the Court of Chancery in England curtailed the limits of Maryland on the north, about half a degree of latitude, and fixed them at the place where they are established. The country granted to Lord Baltimore was called Maryland, in honour of Henrietta Maria, then queen of England, wife of Charles I. The principles upon which the settlement of this colony was begun were alike honourable to the humanity and wisdom of the

founder. They were similar to those coterminously adopted by Roger Williams in the colony of Rhode Island, and subsequently by William Penn, on a greater scale, in the settlement of Pennsylvania. They advanced the prosperity and population of Maryland at a rapid pace, and have left an imperishable brilliancy on the character of Lord Baltimore. The chief features by which the policy of this settlement was honourably distinguished above others of that period, were universal toleration of religious opinions and practices, and a system of humanity towards the Indian nations, whom the proprietary conceived it was more in the spirit of Christianity to civilize than to exterminate, and more prudent to make friends than enemies.

Acting on these principles, the first emigration to Maryland, consisting of about two hundred persons, chiefly Roman Catholics, persons of property, landed in 1634, on the north side of the Potomac, at an Indian town called Piscataway. Leonard Calvert was appointed, by Lord Baltimore, the first governor. The free toleration of religious sentiments, the fertility of the soil, and other natural advantages, soon drew numbers to Maryland, whom the harsh policy of Virginia and New England deterred from those settlements. The Indians perceiving that the new comers were disposed to treat them with humanity, freely ceded half their town, and united with them in planting corn. The town received the name of St. Mary's. The first legislative assembly was held at this place, in 1635, and was attended by the whole body of the freemen. They drew up a system of laws, which they sent over to Lord Baltimore for his approbation. The proprietary, however, rejected them, and sent for their consideration, a code of laws drawn up by himself. The assembly, in their turn, rejected this code, and prepared a system of regulations for themselves. In 1639, an act was passed, establishing a representative government of two branches. One body was elected by the people, and styled burgesses; the other was called by special writ, and included the governor, counsellors, and secretary. Both branches,

however, sat in the same chamber. In 1650, a change took place in this system, by dividing the legislature into distinct houses. The governor and council composed the upper, and the representatives of the people the lower house. The assent of each branch, and of the governor, was necessary to all laws, which were afterwards submitted to the proprietary for his approbation or rejection.

The first trouble experienced by the people of Maryland, arose from Clayborne, whom they had found settled on Kent Island. He appears to have possessed a vindictive and restless disposition, and contrived, for a long time, to harass the colony. On the arrival of the first settlers, he applied to the crown for a confirmation of his former license. This was refused; and, notwithstanding the king's grant, the Lord's commissioners determined that Kent Island belonged to Lord Baltimore—and that neither a settlement, nor a trade with the Indians was allowable without his consent. Clayborne, disgusted with this decision, and unable to contend with the power of the proprietary, intrigued with the Indians until he excited them to hostilities. A war commenced with them in 1642, which lasted several years, and ended with the submission of the natives. In 1645, he was more successful. By his address he raised an insurrection among the colonists, and compelled Governor Calvert to fly to Virginia, while he and his associates obtained the helm of government. In the succeeding year, however, the insurgents were overthrown, and quiet was restored.

During the civil wars of England, the peace of the province was again disturbed. The majority of the landed proprietors were favourable to the cause of royalty, or the proprietary government; but the opposition was powerful, and a civil war ensued. After the death of Charles I., the parliament appointed commissioners "for reducing and governing" the colony. Clayborne was one of the commissioners, and it may be supposed he entered upon his duties with no very good will to the proprietary government. After several skirmishes,

fought with various success, the republican party, or those opposed to the proprietary, prevailed. Stone, the governor of the province, was taken prisoner, and suffered a long confinement. An assembly was called by the triumphant party, when the intolerant code of the English laws, to prevent the growth of popery, was enacted. Such were the severities inflicted upon those who had planted the colony, and displayed the most liberal sentiments towards Christians of other persuasions.

In 1656, the province was again disturbed by an insurrection, which was headed by Josias Fendall. Two years afterwards, the commissioners appointed by Cromwell, surrendered the government into the hands of Fendall, who had received the nomination of governor from the proprietary. The affairs of the province remained, however, in an unsettled state, until the restoration of Charles II. gave confidence to the friends of monarchy. Philip Calvert was now appointed governor by Lord Baltimore, and the former order of things restored. In the same year, hostilities broke out with the Shenandoah Indians. The war was not of long duration, the colonists being aided by the Susquehannah Indians. About this time the number of white inhabitants had increased to upwards of 12,000.

Maryland, like the other English colonies in North America, was attacked in her charter by the last Stuart kings. In the general system of government, projected by James II., this province was included; but, probably through the address of the proprietary, Charles, the third Lord Baltimore, the usual steps to obtain a revocation of the charter, were delayed until a little time previous to the abdication. A *quo warranto* was sent out; but, before judgment could be obtained upon it, the Revolution took place in England. In 1692, protestant doctrines being those of the predominant party, the assembly divided the colony into parishes for the diffusion of the Episcopal faith. Two years afterwards, the town of Severn, on the western shore of the Chesapeake, received the name of Annapolis. In 1699, the assembly removed thence from St. Mary's, and it has since

been the seat of government. From the restoration of Charles II. until the Revolution in England, the government continued in the proprietary: but, when the Revolution in England took place, the government of Maryland was usurped from the proprietary, by what was termed the Protestant Association in arms, and tendered to William and Mary, who accepted it, and it continued a royal province until 1716. The descendants of the proprietary renounced the Catholic religion, when the government was restored to him, and it continued a proprietary government until the Revolution which established the independence of the United States.

ROGER WILLIAMS, the founder of Rhode Island, illustrious for the wisdom and benevolence of his political system, was born in Wales, in the last year of the sixteenth century. Having embraced the opinions of the Puritans, and, being of a spirit not to brook control in matters of conscience, he sought religious liberty in America. On his arrival in Boston, in 1631, he promulgated sentiments respecting freedom of conscience, for which the minds of men were not yet prepared. He maintained, to the astonished and indignant clergy of Massachusetts, that all men were entitled of right to the secure exercise of their opinions on religious subjects; and that, provided the peace of society was not disturbed, the civil magistrate had no warrant to interfere with modes of worship. Having tried the effect of argument and remonstrance upon him, and finding them ineffectual to cure him of this "damnable heresy," the church leaders represented his case to the General Court, who condemned him and his disciples to banishment out of their jurisdiction, and thus unintentionally laid the foundation of a new colony in the neighbourhood. Roger Williams was hospitably received by Canonius, the Indian chief, and after various wanderings, he fixed upon a place, to which he gave the name of Providence, in acknowledgment of God's goodness to him; and, having purchased a tract of land of the Narragansetts, began the settlement of Rhode Island, in the year 1636.

The new colonists here entered into a voluntary asso-



Canoncus receiving Roger Williams.

ciation, and framed a government, composed of the whole body of freemen, for the preservation of peace, and the making of such laws as their situation might require. To their perpetual honour, they did not forget to impose upon themselves the restrictions they had inculcated upon others, in respect to religious toleration. "All men," they declared, "may walk as their consciences persuade them, every one in the name of his God." Religious controversy in other parts of the colonies, soon led to the increase of the settlements, and the wise principles of its founder rendered it an asylum to which the persecuted of all denominations fled. Shortly after the exile of Roger Williams, a controversy arose in Massachusetts between those who main-

tained the "Covenant of Works," and those who espoused the "Covenant of Grace;" and the latter party, being the least numerous, the usual course was adopted, of banishment. Accordingly, Mrs. Hutchinson, the leader of the Antinomians, with a band of chosen disciples, followed the steps of Williams; and, arriving in his neighbourhood, purchased a tract of land, and made a settlement. The latter colony was, at first, distinctively called by the name of Rhode Island, as that of Williams's was called Providence Plantations, and each formed an association, governed by its own laws; but, in 1644, they were incorporated into one government, and have since received the general appellation of Rhode Island.

The treatment of the Indians, by the first settlers of Rhode Island, corresponded with the liberal and Catholic principles they professed. The land which they required for their colony was fairly purchased. Endeavours were made to improve the moral condition of the savages, and to impart to them the blessings of the Gospel; and hostilities with this people, which interfered so much with the prosperity of some other colonies, seems to have been almost unknown in the history of Rhode Island. In 1644 a charter was obtained from the government of England, which gave the people of this colony abundant privileges to form such a constitution and adopt such laws as they thought proper. By the frame of government which the people adopted on this occasion, the executive power was placed in the hands of a governor and four assistants. The legislative power remained in the people at large. In May, 1647, the first General Assembly, consisting of the collective freemen, was convened. The governor and assistants constituted the supreme court for the administration of justice. Every township formed a corporation within itself, and elected a council of six, for the management of its peculiar affairs and the settlement of its disputes.

The settlement of Rhode Island was, for a long time, regarded with a jealous eye by its powerful neighbour, Massachusetts, and the colony, deprived of any assistance, was forced to depend upon its own growing

resources. When the confederacy of Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven, was formed, under the name of the United Colonies of New England, in 1643, Rhode Island, at the instance of Massachusetts, was excluded from it, and her commissioners were not admitted into the Congress of deputies which formed it. On her petitioning afterwards in 1648, to be received as a member, her request was refused, unless she would consent to be incorporated with Plymouth, and thereby surrender her separate existence. The condition was rejected without hesitation, and she was never admitted into the confederacy. In 1663, a new charter was granted to Rhode Island by Charles II., under which the state was governed until a recent period. The preamble to this instrument displays the continuance of those sagacious and benevolent views of public policy which do so much honour to the first settlers of this state. After reciting that the colonists have declared their desire "to hold forth a lively experiment, that a most flourishing civil state may stand and best be maintained with a full liberty in religious concerns," it proceeded with a liberality far from universal, even in this age, "that no person within the said colony, at any time hereafter, shall be in any wise molested, punished, disquieted or called in question, for any difference of opinion in matters of religion, who do not actually disturb the civil peace; but that all and every person and persons, may from time to time and at all times hereafter, freely and fully enjoy his and their own judgments and consciences in matters of religious concernment, they behaving themselves peaceably and quietly, and not using this liberty to licentiousness and profaneness, nor to the civil injury or outward disturbance of others." Thus an unlimited toleration of all religions, whether founded on the Christian revelation or otherwise, seems to have been adopted; and the consequences were soon visible in the rapid growth and harmonious prosperity of this little commonwealth. The only source of disquiet arose from the oppressive measures of the parent country, which were exercised upon all the colonies alike. The charters were too

liberal for the taste of the English court, and it was determined to destroy them. In 1685, a *quo warranto* was issued against Rhode Island, and in the succeeding year, the celebrated Sir Edmund Andros adopted the same measures towards this colony, that had been pursued with the others of New England. The seal of the province was broken, the government was dissolved, and the administration taken into his own hands. On his imprisonment in 1689, the people resumed their charter, and the mode of government it had guaranteed.

From this period to the commencement of the American Revolution, the history of Rhode Island is barren of incidents. Fortunate in living under a well-regulated democracy, enjoying a salubrious climate, and possessing great advantages for commerce, the inhabitants of this province, if they played no distinguished part in the drama of life, were prosperous and happy. We find it recorded that, in 1730, the population was about eighteen thousand persons, and that in 1746 it was estimated at thirty-five thousand. In the last-mentioned year, three hundred men were voted for an expedition into Canada, projected by the British government.

CHAPTER VIII.

Settlement of New Hampshire and Maine.—Mason and Gorges.—Cranfield.

THE first discovery made by the English of any part of New Hampshire, was in 1614, by Captain John Smith, who navigated the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod, and, on his return home to Great Britain, gave so favourable an account of the country to Prince Charles, that he bestowed on it the name of New England. In 1621, Captain John Mason, a member of the Plymouth Company, whose name is inseparably connected with



Mason and Gorges naming their provinces.

the history of this state, procured a grant from the company of all the land from the river Salem to the Merrimack; and in the next year another grant was made to Mason and Sir Ferdinand Gorges of all the lands between the Merrimack and the Sagadahock. To this last tract was given the name of Laconia. It included a part of Maine. Under the authority of their grant, Mason and Gorges attempted, in 1623, the establishment of a colony, at the Piscataque; and other settlements were made on the coast, both by grantees under Mason, and by emigrants from Plymouth and Massachusetts, who purchased from the natives. When Mason and Gorges divided their provinces, they gave to them the names respectively of their native counties; the former calling his New Hampshire, and the latter

giving the name of New Somersetshire to his, which was subsequently called Maine. The settlements, however, were slow in their progress for many years. The boundaries were in dispute, a considerable portion of the territory being claimed by Massachusetts. The settlers generally occupied themselves in hunting, fishing, cutting timber, and trading with the Indians, instead of pursuing a regular business of agriculture.

In 1629, a large tract was granted by the Indians to John Wheelwright, and others. In the same year, Mason applied for, and obtained, from the Plymouth Company, a new grant, of all the lands from the middle of the Piscataqua to its head, "thence north-westward, until sixty miles from the mouth of the harbour were finished; also, through Merrimack river, to the furthest head thereof, and so forward up into the land westward, until sixty miles were finished; and thence to cross over land, to the end of the sixty miles accounted from the Piscataqua." This is the tract of country now called NEW HAMPSHIRE.

The conflicting titles derived from the Indians, and under the grant of Mason, were fruitful sources of disquiet to the province for many years. The settlements which had been formed on the coast, were detached, and without any general government that could protect them from foreign incursions, or the consequences of disagreement among themselves.

About 1640, the inhabitants negotiated with Massachusetts to take them under her protection. The proposal was agreed to on the part of the province, of which they were admitted freemen on equal terms; and the union lasted nearly forty years, both parties deriving advantages from it. About this time Mason died, and the confusion occasioned by the civil wars in England, prevented his heirs from obtaining a legal recognition of their claim.

As soon as Charles II. was restored to the throne, Robert Mason, grandson of the original patentee, proffered a complaint against Massachusetts for usurping

jurisdiction over his property. The king sent out commissioners, with general powers to hear and determine complaints, and to settle the peace and security of the country. The Assembly of Massachusetts declined submitting to their jurisdiction, and denied their authority to interfere. The matter was brought before the king, in council, who decided, in 1679, in favour of Mason's claim. In consequence thereof, New Hampshire was separated from Massachusetts, and subjected to a new government, consisting of a governor and council, of royal appointment; and an assembly of representatives, chosen by the people.

The first acts of the assembly were expressive of their attachment to freedom. They declared that no law or ordinance should be imposed upon them, but such as should be made by the assembly; and, foreseeing, perhaps, the troubles in which they were about to be involved from the claims of Mason, they enacted that all grants should remain as they were before, and that all controversies about the titles to land should be tried by juries.

In 1680, Mason arrived from England, and immediately began to assert his right to the entire soil, in a manner the most vexatious to the people. The council interfered, and forbade his collecting rents, which he claimed to be due to him, by summary process. Finding that he was not able to bend them to his views, he returned to England, and procured a change to be made in the government.

Edward Cranfield was appointed governor, with large powers. His commission authorized him to call and dissolve the assembly, to impose a negative upon their acts, to suspend any of the council, and to appoint judges and other officers by his sole authority. Soon after his arrival, he called upon the inhabitants to take out leases from Mason, within the short period of a month, under penalty of confiscation of their estates, and imprisonment of their persons. A considerable proportion of the lands within the province was held by fair purchasers,

under titles derived from the Indians, and the holders made common cause with each other against the arbitrary demands of Mason.

A few only of the inhabitants took leases; but the great body was determined in their refusal to submit. The first suit instituted by Mason was against Major Waldron, who had distinguished himself by his opposition to the proprietary claims. Judgment was given against him, and in all the succeeding suits a similar result was obtained. Cranfield now assumed the whole legislative power, and, to further his schemes of confirming the power of Mason, and enriching himself, he scrupled not to resort to the most cruel and dishonest modes of oppression. The assembly, having refused to pass a bill for raising money, which he had caused to be laid before them, he dissolved the session, and, descending to a pitiful revenge, caused many of them to be appointed constables, by which means he hoped to obtain the fine which was levied on such as refused to fill the office.

A dissenting minister, named Moody, had rendered himself obnoxious by his expressions in favour of freedom, and Cranfield determined to put in force against him, the laws of England, punishing non-conformity. He, accordingly, gave Moody notice that he intended to partake of the Lord's supper on the next Sunday, and required him to administer it according to the liturgy. It was in vain that Moody represented that he was not Episcopally ordained according to the statute. He was put in confinement, his benefice forfeited, and, after the expiration of his imprisonment, he was glad to escape to Boston.

The complaints of the people, at length reached the ears of the English government. The proceedings of Cranfield were declared illegal, and he obtained permission to resign. The attempts of Mason, to enforce executions upon the judgments he had obtained, were warmly resisted. On one occasion warrants were issued against a party of rioters, some of whom the

sheriff was endeavouring to arrest in church. He was stoutly resisted by the congregation, and a female patriot distinguished herself by knocking down one of the officers with her Bible.

After the accession of James II., new schemes for the North American provinces were meditated. In 1686, Sir Edmund Andros arrived at Boston, with a commission, appointing him governor-in-chief over all New England, and authorizing him with his council, to make such laws and impose such taxes as they thought proper. New Hampshire, like the other provinces, fell under the vindictive tyranny of the English viceroys. The press was shackled, liberty of conscience invaded, and oppressive taxes imposed; and, to prevent complaints being heard, no person was allowed to leave the country without an express license. This state of things continued until the Revolution in England, when Andros was seized by the people of Boston and sent home a prisoner.

New Hampshire being now left without a government, the people determined to return to their former connexion with Massachusetts. A petition being presented to the court, they were readily admitted. This union, however, lasted only three years. The English government determined that New Hampshire should form a distinct province, notwithstanding that a convention of the people had petitioned that they might be annexed to Massachusetts. During these changes of government, Mason had not slept on his claims. Previous to the abdication of James II., he had vainly endeavoured to enforce the suits he had brought. The judges were averse to issuing executions, and after some time he obtained an order removing his causes to Boston. Death, however, put a stop to his proceedings. His heirs sold the claim to Allen, a merchant of London, who obtained from the crown a commission as governor of the province. He prepared to enforce his title to the land; but on examining the record of the court, it was found that all that

part which contained the judgment against Waldron, and others, was missing. Suits were therefore brought anew, and eventuated in favour of the defendants. Allen appealed to the king in council. The death of William delayed proceedings, and soon afterwards, Allen himself died. His son renewed the ejectment against Waldron, in whose favour another decision was made. Allen applied to the queen, but died before judgment was given. His heirs, being minors, did not renew the claim. Many years afterwards, the heirs of Mason revived the controversy, but their interest was purchased by the assembly, and the long protracted contest ended in 1747.

New Hampshire was, perhaps, of all the colonies, the one that suffered most from Indian hostilities. It is impossible in this sketch to give even an outline of the harassing conflicts she was compelled to maintain with these savages. From the earliest settlement of the province, her progress was retarded by their inroads. Husbandmen were slaughtered in their fields, women and children were carried away, and the most distressing scenes of individual misery occurred almost daily. These outrages were probably often provoked by the settlers; and the savages were frequently excited by the neighbouring French, as, in later years, they have been stirred up by the English against this country. As the population of New Hampshire increased, and the frontiers extended, Indian incursions became less frequent; and after the surrender of Canada to the British arms, the province was entirely exempted from their ravages. In the twelve years of peace which followed, New Hampshire increased wonderfully in population and wealth. Her settlements extended farther west than the original limits prescribed by the patent. Until 1764, it was supposed that the territory which now forms the state of Vermont, was part of the province, and grants were accordingly made by the government of New Hampshire. The district was, however, allotted to New York, by the English government, and a contro-

versy ensued, which continued until the independence of Vermont was acknowledged, in 1790. During the contest many of the towns of New Hampshire, lying near the Connecticut river, attached themselves to the Vermontese; but in the end returned to their former submission.





Southern Scenery.

CHAPTER IX.

Settlement of North Carolina.—Settlement of South Carolina.

NORTH CAROLINA originally formed part of that extensive region, which by the French was named *Florida*, and by the English, *Virginia*; and was included in the patent granted in 1584, to Sir Walter Raleigh. Amidas and Barlow, who had been sent out under his direction, discovered Pamlico Sound, and took possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth on the *Fourth of July*, a memorable day in the history of the United States. After exploring the country, where they were hospitably received, they returned to England, carrying with them two of the Indians. A second expedition, commanded by Ralph Lane, and Sir Richard Granville, arrived on the coast of North Caro-

lina, in July of the following year. They landed a party, who engaged in a dispute with the Indians, and wantonly burnt their town and destroyed their corn. In August, the vessels returned to England, leaving a colony of about one hundred persons on the Island of Roanoke. Soon after their departure, the Indians entered into a plot to destroy the colony. The scheme was ripe for execution, when the secret was discovered to Lane, who took effectual measures to counteract it. The colony escaped destruction, but their sufferings had been great, and when, in the spring of 1586, Sir Francis Drake visited the coast, they took advantage of the opportunity and returned to England.

A few days after their departure several vessels arrived with stores and colonists, but, finding no remains of the colony, they left the coast. Raleigh, not discouraged by these disappointments, fitted out three vessels the next spring, and stocking them with colonists, obtained a charter for the company, under the name of "The Governor and Assistants of the City of Raleigh, in Virginia." Misfortunes still attended the attempt. A colony was left on Roanoke, consisting of upwards of one hundred persons; but when, three years afterwards, some vessels touched at the island, they found a deserted and ruined town, without seeing a human being, and from that period no knowledge has been gained of the missing colony. Many years passed away before the attempt to settle North Carolina was renewed.

About the middle of the seventeenth century, some planters emigrated from Virginia, and with others began a settlement in the county of Albemarle. They found the climate mild and the soil fertile. From the flattering description which they gave of the country, a considerable number of families were induced to join them, and thus began the first permanent settlement of North Carolina. In 1661, another settlement was made near Cape Fear, by a number of adventurers from Massachusetts, who obtained a grant of their lands from the native proprietors of the soil. They suffered severely, however, from the Indians, who at last broke up the settle-

ment on the pretence that some of their children, whom the settlers had obtained for the ostensible purpose of sending them to Massachusetts for education, had been sold into slavery. In 1665 a colony arrived from Barbadoes, and purchased a considerable tract of land from Sir William Berkely, who allowed three years for the payment of quit rents, and held out encouraging offers to settlers. To each person who should make an actual settlement he offered one hundred acres in fee; the same quantity for each child and man servant, and for woman servants and slaves the portion was fifty acres. This colony, which consisted of eight hundred persons, carried on a commerce with Barbadoes, exchanging slaves for dry goods and the produce of the island.

While these settlements were struggling with the difficulties incidental to their situation, the whole country between the 31st and 36th degrees of north latitude, was granted by Charles II. to Lord Clarendon and others. Under this patent, the proprietors claimed Carolina, and also jurisdiction over all who had settled within it, and placed them under the general superintendence of Sir William Berkely, the governor of Virginia. The inhabitants of Albemarle, who had purchased their lands of the Indians, and supported themselves without the aid of the patentees, were naturally dissatisfied with the prospects of being compelled to pay quit rents. They petitioned that they might be allowed to hold their lands on the same terms as lands were held in Virginia. This reasonable request was not immediately granted, and the settlers revolted from the government of the proprietors for nearly two years; but, on receiving assurances that their petition was granted, they submitted to the new order of things. In 1667, a constitution was framed for the government of the infant colony. A General Assembly was to be instituted, consisting of the governor, who was to be chosen by the proprietors; twelve counsellors, and twelve delegates, annually chosen by the freeholders. No taxes were to be laid except by the consent of the Assembly. Two years afterwards, a constitution, re-

markable for the novelty and extravagance of its features, and equally remarkable as having been the production of the famous John Locke, was attempted to be put in force. By the provisions of this single instrument, a palatine or president was to be chosen for life; a hereditary nobility was to be created, consisting of landgraves and caciques; the former to possess sixteen, the latter four thousand acres of land; the estates and titles to descend concurrently for ever. The parliament was to consist of the proprietors, the nobility, and the representatives of the freeholders. They were all to assemble in one apartment; they had no power of originating laws, but could only decide on such as should be prepared in the grand council of governor, nobility, and proprietary deputies. The whole number of regulations in this constitution amounted to one hundred and twenty. Unfortunately, there were no nobility in the settlement, and the titles sat awkwardly on the rude planters. The commonalty were dissatisfied with the proposition, and their discontent, aggravated by other causes, at last found vent in an open insurrection. The palatine, and some of the new-fledged nobles, were overpowered and put in prison, and the insurgents exercised authority during the space of two years. For many years after this period, a state of things prevailed in North Carolina not very favourable to the improvement of the colony. Government was feebly administered; the presiding officers were frequently changed or deposed, and morals were greatly relaxed. The progress of the settlements was slow. In 1702, the whole province is said to have contained only six thousand persons.

In 1710, a considerable number of Palatines arrived, and settled near the Roanoke, in Albemarle and Bath counties.

For many years, the settlers of North Carolina had lived in good harmony with the Indians; and it does not appear that any provocation was given to the latter, other than that which arose from the increasing numbers and gradual encroachments of the whites. In

1712, however, a horrible outrage was committed. The Corees and Tuscaroras conceived the design of destroying, in cold blood, all the whites in Carolina. Accordingly, on a night mutually fixed for the purpose, when the planters were unsuspecting of evil, the savages entered their houses and commenced an indiscriminate slaughter. Of the Roanoke settlers, one hundred and seven were butchered in one night. The alarm being given, many escaped the meditated destruction. Information was sent immediately to Charleston, whence the assembly sent a body of six hundred militia, under Colonel Barnwell, who were joined by a number of friendly Indians. With much difficulty the commander explored his way through the wilderness which separates the two Carolinas. Having overcome these difficulties, he surprised the Tuscaroras, killed about three hundred, and made one hundred prisoners. Those who survived, sought refuge in their fortified town, but they were pursued by Barnwell and attacked. A great number were killed, and the survivors, to whom a treaty of peace had been granted, soon afterwards left the country and united themselves with the Five Nations.

In 1717, the proprietors sold the province to the crown for the sum of 17,500*l.* sterling; and from this period to the epoch of independence, the government was administered by officers appointed by the king. The colony soon afterwards received an accession of members by the arrival of some Moravians, who settled between the rivers Yadkin and Dan; and of Irish and Scotch Presbyterians, who established themselves in the north-western parts. Its prosperity, however, was again retarded by an insurrection, in 1771, of the inhabitants of the western counties, who styled themselves "Regulators;" and, complaining of oppressions practised in the administration of justice, professed a desire to regulate these matters, by destroying the lawyers. With this view, they organized themselves into a formidable body of fifteen hundred men; but Governor Tryon marched against them with about one thousand militia, and



Treaty with the Indians.

totally defeated them. Three hundred were killed, and the remainder sued for mercy. Soon after this period, the contest with Great Britain commenced, and although this colony had suffered, perhaps, less than any other from British misgovernment, the majority of the inhabitants joined heartily with their brethren of the other colonies in opposition to the schemes of the British ministry, and afterwards in the declaration of independence.

South, as well as North Carolina, was in 1662, granted to the Earl of Clarendon and seven others, who were constituted absolute lords and proprietors of the province. The germ of the population of South Carolina was first planted at or near Port Royal, in 1670, by a few emigrants from England, under the direction of William Sayle, the first governor of the province. Dissatisfied with the situation, they removed in 1671 to the western bank of Ashley River, and there laid the foundation of old Charleston. The site was injudiciously chosen, for it could not be approached by vessels of large burden, and

it was in consequence abandoned. A second removal took place in 1680, to Oyster Point, a spot at the confluence of the rivers Ashley and Cooper, when the foundation of the present city of Charleston was laid, and in one year thirty houses were built.

The settlement at Port Royal received the name of South Carolina, soon after its commencement; but it, together with North Carolina, continued the joint property of the same persons for many years. They had, however, separate governors and assemblies. Locke's constitution was as obnoxious to the people of this province as it was to their neighbours; and here, as there, produced nothing but anarchy and discord. The people soon grew tired of the oppression of the proprietors, and petitioned for a change of government. They preferred the control of a monarch to the tyranny of an oligarchy, and in 1719 effected a change in the system, by which the government was vested in the crown.

In 1729, the proprietors gave up their rights to the government upon receiving an indemnity, except Lord Carteret, who never formally ceded his share. From this period, the colony was governed on the same plan as the others, and its growth became more rapid. Population began to pour in when discord subsided. After the final conquest of New York by the English, many Dutch emigrants settled in the province. The revocation of the edict of Nantes, contributed greatly to its prosperity, more by the respectability and useful character of the French protestants, who established themselves in Carolina, than by their numbers. They generally settled themselves on the Santee River. The insurrections in England in 1715 and 1745, in favour of the Stuarts, sent a number of exiles to South Carolina: many arrived from Germany and Switzerland, and the British government transported fifteen hundred French colonists from Nova Scotia. Besides these, the bounty of fourteen pounds which had been allowed in 1712, for the importation of every healthy male person, between twelve and thirty years of age, was the means of procuring great numbers of settlers. The prosperity of Caro-

lina had also been promoted by another cause. About the end of the seventeenth century, a vessel from Madagascar touched at Charleston. Governor Smith visited the captain, who presented him with a bag of seed rice, informing him of the manner of cultivating it, of its nutritiousness and great increase. The seed was divided among several planters, and was found to answer fully the expectations of the governor. From this accidental circumstance was introduced what soon became one of the staple commodities of South Carolina.

The progress of this state in population and prosperity was, however, impeded in the early part of the eighteenth century, by the hostility of the Indians and of the Spaniards of Florida. In 1702, an expedition was fitted out at the suggestion of Governor Moore, for an attack on St. Augustine, although war had not been formally declared by Britain against Spain. The governor was in person at the head of the expedition, and was unfortunate in its management and conclusion. The troops were landed, and the siege commenced; but, on the arrival of two Spanish vessels, the governor hastily retreated by land, with his men, abandoning his ships to the Spaniards.

The next year, the Apalachian Indians having been the cause of a great annoyance to the settlers, Governor Moore marched into their country, destroyed their towns between the Alatomaha and the Savannah, and, after killing a large number, compelled the tribe to submit to the British government. In 1706, the Spaniards and French, as a retaliation for the attempt upon St. Augustine, prepared an expedition against Charleston. It consisted of a French frigate under Captain Le Feboure, and four armed sloops, having on board about eight hundred men. The province was then under the direction of Governor Johnson, a man of courage and abilities. By his strenuous exertions, the town was placed in a state of defence, which deterred the Spaniards from prosecuting their attempt farther than to land a small body of troops. These were attacked by Johnson, and most of them killed or taken prisoners. The squadron and the remainder of

the troops returned to Florida, without having effected any of the purposes for which they were sent out.

From 1712 to 1718, the inhabitants of South Carolina were engaged in an unvarying round of hostilities with the Tuscaroras of North Carolina, and with the Yemassee of their own province. These wars were undertaken by the Indians, with the declared object of exterminating the whites. From 1755 to 1759, the province was harassed by the encroachments of the Cherokees, who made incursions into the frontier settlements, and broke them up. Quiet was restored for a short time, by a treaty of peace; but, in 1760, hostilities again broke out with these savages. The unfortunate settlers were exposed to every variety of hardship and suffering; and, to add to their calamities, the small-pox raged with destructive violence among them. This state of things continued until 1763, when a general peace was concluded.

From this period until the Revolution of 1776, the province of South Carolina enjoyed great prosperity, and the population nearly doubled itself. At the commencement of the revolutionary contest, the Carolinians, who had experienced little of the oppressive system which the British government had exercised towards the more northern colonies, were somewhat undecided as to the part they ought to take. At this period, a mail, brought by the English packet, was seized by the patriotic committee, and was found to contain instructions to the governors of Virginia and the Carolinas, to make an immediate and effectual use of military force. This circumstance seems to have determined the conduct of the colonists of South Carolina. During the long struggle which followed, this state suffered much, both from the British and Indians, and the disaffected within. The war in South Carolina and its vicinity was remarkable both for general actions of great importance to the public cause, and for the display which it afforded of individual bravery and patriotism.



Arms of New Jersey.

CHAPTER X.

Settlement of New Jersey.

THE period at which the first European settlements were made in the territory now composing the state of New Jersey, is not clearly ascertained. Detached bodies of the Dutch from New York planted themselves in the eastern part, while, in the western portion of the state, bordering on the Delaware, small bodies of Swedes were settled. The Dutch claimed the whole country, from the Connecticut to the Delaware, and protested against the occupation of any part of it by the Swedes. Without regard to the validity of their title, Charles II., in 1664, granted to his brother, the duke of York, a patent for the precise country claimed by the Dutch, including the territory between the Hudson and the Delaware. In the same year, the duke of York sold this district, which then, for the first time, received the name of New Jersey, to Lord Berkely and Sir George Carteret. To encourage emigration, the new proprietors offered liberal privileges to settlers; and it

ought to be recorded to their honour, that they established it as a fundamental rule, that all vacant land should be purchased from the natives. Eighty acres were offered to each settler, under a quit rent of one penny per acre, to commence at a future period. The important privilege of self-government was accorded to the inhabitants; the proprietors declaring that all laws should be made by the representatives of the people, but reserving to themselves the executive power.

Thus wisely constituted, the settlement of Jersey soon advanced with rapidity. Philip Carteret was the first governor, and under his administration the system of the proprietors was strictly pursued with respect to the Indians. The consequences were highly favourable to the prosperity of the colony. Hostilities with this people, from which many of the other provinces suffered so severely, were scarcely known. New Jersey continued to thrive under the prudent management of the proprietors until 1673, when the Dutch, having reconquered New York, extended their power again over this province. Their government, however, was brief; for on the conclusion of peace between England and Holland, two years afterwards, the whole country was restored to the former power. The duke of York now obtained from Charles II. a confirmation of his former patent; and considering his former grant of New Jersey annulled, he claimed jurisdiction over all the country comprised in the patent; appointed Sir Edmund Andros governor of his territories, from the Connecticut to the Delaware, and, uniting with him a council, gave them the whole powers of government, legislative and executive. This fit agent of tyrannical measures arrived in America in November, 1674, and proceeded to the exercise of his functions. In the same year, Lord Berkely assigned his undivided half of New Jersey to the celebrated William Penn and three others. Perceiving the disadvantages of joint ownership, they came to an agreement with Carteret, by which the province was divided into two parts. Carteret received East Jersey, and gave in return to William Penn and his asso-

ciates, a release of the western part of the province. The duke of York had given up his claim as far as respected East Jersey to Carteret, but retained West Jersey as a part of his government, and an appendage of New York. Hence arose constant conflicts of jurisdiction, and an uncertainty respecting titles, which harassed the inhabitants, and finally ended in the destruction of the proprietary government. On the one hand, Carteret endeavoured to participate in commercial advantages, by establishing a port at Amboy; but Andros, who feared that the commerce of New York might be injured, seized and condemned all vessels trading thither, and was supported by the duke of York. The governor and council of New York claimed also the right of imposing taxes on New Jersey, and extended their jurisdiction on all occasions. The proprietors of West Jersey had, in the meantime, been earnest in their remonstrances and petitions to the duke of York; and the question was at length referred to Sir William Jones, an eminent lawyer, who decided in favour of the proprietary rights, and against the legality of taxes. Thus having high legal opinion against him, the duke could no longer avoid doing justice; and accordingly, in 1680, he conveyed West Jersey to the proprietors. About this time the province received a considerable accession of inhabitants by the arrival of a number of Quakers, who principally settled in the neighbourhood of the present towns of Burlington and Salem, which they built.

In 1682, Carteret, who had involved himself in an unpleasant dispute with the assembly, transferred his interest in the province to William Penn, and eleven other persons of the sect of Quakers. These immediately conveyed one-half of the province to a company of Scotsmen, at the head of whom was the earl of Perth. In 1683, the Scotch proprietors obtained a patent of confirmation from the duke of York. After this event many emigrants arrived from Scotland. The first governor of East Jersey, under the proprietors, was Robert Barclay, the celebrated author of the Apology for the Quaker belief, who was appointed to the office for life.

Notwithstanding the grant of the duke of York, and the decision of Sir William Jones, the government of New York still claimed a jurisdiction over East Jersey, and attempted to levy the same taxes upon it as in its own province. Complaint was made in England, but no redress was obtained. After the accession of the duke of York to the English throne, a writ of *quo warranto* was issued against the proprietors, who, finding there was no other resource, endeavoured to save what they could by voluntary submission, and made a formal surrender of their patent, praying only for a grant of the soil. It was intended by James II. that the whole province, together with that of New York, should be united with New England in an arbitrary government; and arrangements were making to carry the design into execution when the revolution of 1688 fortunately put an end to his power. For several years after this period, the province suffered greatly from the want of an efficient government; each division having different proprietors, whose views were opposite. Confusion arose in titles and jurisdiction, and discord prevailed between the governors and the assemblies. In this state of things the proprietors of both parts surrendered, in 1702, their rights of government to Queen Anne.

New Jersey was now again united into one province, and a more regular and harmonious system of administration prevailed. Lord Cornbury, cousin to the queen, was the first royal governor. He was also governor of New York, and abused his functions in both provinces. On the complaint of the New York assembly, the queen removed him from office. From this period to the epoch of the American Revolution, New Jersey was not the scene of any memorable event. Its population and prosperity rapidly augmented under an orderly and prudent administration of affairs. From its connexion with England, however, the province became involved in the wars of that country; and, though remote from the scene of action, we find her contributing, on several occasions, to the expeditions undertaken for the conquest of the

French possessions. In 1709, the Assembly passed laws for remitting 3000*l.*, in bills of credit, for the aid of the government, and for the encouragement of volunteers to join the forces destined for Canada. This was the first paper money emitted in New Jersey, and its credit was so well supported by the government, that no depreciation took place. In 1738, on the petition of the colony for a separate governor, Lewis Morris was appointed to the office by the crown. Previously to this, the affairs of the province had been administered by the governor of New York. The last royal governor of New Jersey was William Temple Franklin, a son of the celebrated Benjamin Franklin.

The attempts of the British government to impose an arbitrary authority over her colonies, met with as warm opposition in New Jersey, as in any other province. Deputies were sent to the Congress, which convened at Philadelphia, on the occasion of the stamp act, and to all the subsequent assemblies. During the contest which ensued, New Jersey was the seat of hostilities for a great length of time. Her losses in men and property are said to have been greater in proportion than any other state. Trenton, her capital, is rendered memorable by the surprise of the Hessian troops stationed there, and their surrender to General Washington, an event of signal importance to the common cause of the republic. At Princeton the enemy received another check, which, united with their defeat at Trenton, obliged them to retire into winter quarters; and Monmouth, together with many other places in this state, have become classic ground from similar causes. The cruelties perpetrated by the British army, during its different campaigns and incursions, were of the most savage character, and justly excited a warm feeling of indignation in the inhabitants, which prompted them to repair to the standard of Washington.



William Penn.

CHAPTER XI.

Settlement of Pennsylvania.

WILLIAM PENN, the illustrious founder of Pennsylvania, was the son of Sir William Penn, a British admiral, who, in the year 1655, rendered very important services to the nation by the conquest of Jamaica from the Spaniards, and by a naval victory over the Dutch. At an early period of his life, the son, to the great mortification of the admiral, joined the sect of Quakers or Friends, to whom persecution had about that period

begun to attract the public attention. For this he underwent a portion of their sufferings, having been repeatedly imprisoned for preaching to the people. The intolerance manifested by the magistrates, and the majority of the people (for the king appears to have been disposed to lenity), induced William Penn to turn his attention to America. He and some others purchased a large quantity of land in New Jersey; but, being dissatisfied with his partners in the concern, he formed the design of acquiring a separate estate. The crown was indebted to his father's executors in the sum of about 16,000*l.*, and, as an acquittance for this, a large tract was granted to him in severalty. His charter conveyed to him, under the name of Pennsylvania, all that tract of country bounded on the east by the river Delaware; extending westward five degrees of longitude; stretching to the north, from twelve miles northward of Newcastle, to the forty-third* degree of latitude, and limited on the south by a circle of twelve miles drawn round Newcastle to the beginning of the fortieth degree of latitude. From the want of sufficient attention to former charters, this grant interfered, both with that of Maryland on the south, and with the claims of Connecticut on the east; and hence arose contentions with regard to boundaries, which were not settled for a century afterwards.

In May, 1681, the proprietary sent over Markham with a few others to take possession of the territory, and prepare for the settlement. In July, he sold twenty thousand acres to a company formed of merchants, and other persons, at the rate of twenty pounds for every thousand acres; and entered into articles of agreement with them, entitled "Conditions and Concessions." In the following year, Penn published his frame of government, by which the supreme power was to be vested in the governor and a general assembly, consisting, at first, of the whole body of the people, and afterwards of a house of delegates. A provincial council was

*The forty-third degree of latitude mentioned in the charter, means the commencement of the forty-third degree, or the forty-second parallel, which is now the northern boundary.

established, consisting of seventy-two persons, to be chosen by the freemen. The governor, possessed of three votes, presided in this council, which prepared and digested all laws, leaving to the people the mere right of confirming or rejecting. This frame of government was, after a short time, laid aside, and another, resembling those established in the other provinces, was adopted.

In October, 1682, Penn, accompanied by about two thousand settlers, mostly Friends, arrived at Newcastle, on the Delaware. He had previously obtained from the duke of York a conveyance of the land at present included in the state of Delaware. His first step was to convoke an assembly, which was held at Upland (now called Chester), in December, 1682. In a short session of three days, a period in which their descendants would hardly have agreed upon the choice of a speaker, they adopted a constitution, modifying that drawn up by Penn, in England; and passed several very important laws. Among other provisions, that great and admirable principle, to an adherence to which the province owed much of its prosperity, was adopted: "That none, acknowledging one God, and living peaceably in society, should be molested for his opinions or practice, or compelled to frequent or maintain any ministry whatever." Another principle of Penn's system, equally novel and praiseworthy, regarded the treatment of the Indians. Soon after his arrival, he summoned them to a council, and, treating with them on an amicable and equal footing, as men and brethren, obtained from them, in return for valuable presents, a cession of as much land as his exigencies required. The same course was pursued in his subsequent intercourse with them; the treaties were kept inviolate by both parties; and it was seen with surprise by mankind, that kindness and good faith were as useful assistants as the sword in the affairs of a colony. No one of the colonies made such rapid advances in prosperity as Pennsylvania. The salubrity of the climate, and the general fruitfulness of the soil,

had some influence, but the moral attractions predominated. The persecutions of the Quakers and other sects, in England, drove thousands to a place where worship was as free as air; and the prospect of enjoying equal rights in civil matters, drew over from the continent of Europe a vast number of industrious and moral emigrants.

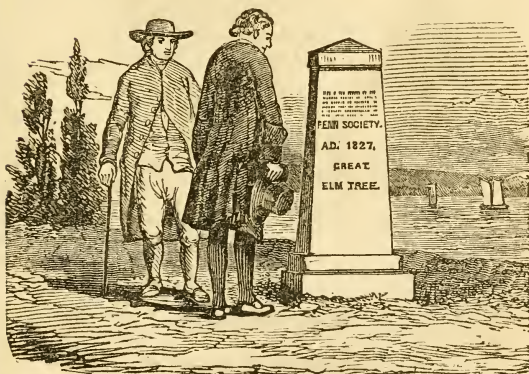
The city of Philadelphia was laid out at an early period after the arrival of the first settlers, according to a design which had been prepared by William Penn, in England. The second assembly of Pennsylvania was held at this place, in April, 1683. Among other important laws adopted, was one which abrogated the common law of England respecting descents, and distributed the estates of persons dying intestate among the children, giving the eldest son, however, a double share. The revolution in England, which took place in 1688, produced some change in the government of Pennsylvania. William Penn was suspected of entertaining unfavourable sentiments towards the house of Orange. He was, therefore, suspended from the privilege of appointing a deputy for his province; and, in 1692, Pennsylvania, without any regard to its charter, was annexed to New York, and subjected to the administration of Fletcher, governor of that province. Penn, however, two years after, reinstated himself in the good opinion of the court. He regained his province, and appointed Markham lieutenant-governor. Notwithstanding the pacific disposition of both the governor and the people, and the general concordance of their opinions, Pennsylvania proved to be no Utopia for the worthy proprietary. Bickerings about the constitution, or the laws, or the manner of disposing of the lands, almost constantly existed. The charter had twice been altered, but the colonists were still discontented. At length, in 1701, Penn gave them a third charter. It provided that the assembly should consist of deputies from each county, and should have the right to originate, amend, or reject, all bills; that the governor should nominate his own council, exercise

the whole executive power, and have a negative on the proceedings of the assembly. The delegates from Pennsylvania assented to this instrument; but those from the the "three lower counties on the Delaware," as they were called, refused to adopt it, and seceded from the assembly. No adjustment could be made; and from this period, the three counties had a distinct assembly, though they were subject to the same governor as Pennsylvania. The constitution thus adopted in Pennsylvania, continued in force until the Revolution.

In 1718, William Penn died, at the age of seventy-four. From the period of his undertaking the settlement of Pennsylvania, his life had been a uniform scene of vexation and disquiet. His private fortune had been materially injured by his advances to promote the infant colony, and at one time he was compelled to submit to a temporary deprivation of liberty. He left, however, to his descendants an inheritance of great value; which they enjoyed until the Revolution, when the commonwealth became the possessor; and, as an indemnification, granted them an ample sum of money. From the death of Penn to the Revolution, the history of Pennsylvania is little more than a narrative of petty quarrels between the proprietaries, governors, and the assembly. The chief subject of the dispute arose from the lands of the proprietaries, which they wished to exempt from the taxation to which other lands were liable. The assembly resisted the exemption stoutly, and this disagreement frequently prevented the passage of necessary laws. In 1749, an important treaty was concluded with the Indians of the Six Nations, at Philadelphia, in which, for goods of considerable value, they granted to the proprietary all the lands on the Susquehanna, south as far as the boundary of Pennsylvania, and north to the Endless Mountains, or Kittatinny Hills, now called the Blue Mountains; and, since that time, the Indian title to the residue of the state has been extinguished.

Notwithstanding that a large portion of her popula-

tion consisted of Quakers, whose tenets inclined them to submission to existing governments, Pennsylvania opposed the arbitrary measures of the British government, which led to the Revolution, with as much zeal and ardour as her sister states. The first congress of deputies from the states, and most of the subsequent meetings of the same assembly, were held at Philadelphia; and it was at the same place that the Declaration of Independence was adopted and proclaimed.



The Treaty Monument.



Oglethorpe.

CHAPTER XII.

Settlement of Georgia.

OF the thirteen provinces which declared themselves independent states in 1776, Georgia was the last settled. The country lying within its present boundaries, was, previous to the year 1733, a wilderness; and, though comprehended within the charter of Carolina, had been claimed by Spain as well as England. The

sufferings of the English poor from the existing state of trade and industry, led to the first attempt at settlement in Georgia. A company was formed for the purpose of assisting such as might be disposed to emigrate in search of the means of subsistence. To this company, George II., by patent dated in 1732, granted the territory, which, in compliment to him, was called Georgia, and a corporation of twenty-one persons was created, under the title of "the Trustees for settling the colony of Georgia." In November of that year, a large sum of money having been subscribed, one hundred and sixty persons embarked at Gravesend, under the direction of General James Oglethorpe, and arrived at Charleston, in January, 1733. From this place Oglethorpe proceeded to explore the country destined for their place of settlement. A treaty was held with the Creek Indians, and a large tract of land obtained by cession. On a high bluff, overlooking a river, the foundation of a town was laid, which received the name of Savannah, after the Indian name of the river. Here the settlement was commenced in the spring of 1733; but the injudicious system of the trustees, and, perhaps, the character of the settlers themselves, impeded a rapid advance. Taking as their model, the feudal tenures, the trustees granted their lands in tail-male; which, on the termination of the male descendants of the grantee, were to revert to the donors, to be again granted to such persons as would be most likely to render personal services. The condition upon which the lands were parcelled out was military duty. Each possessor was to appear in arms, and take the field when called upon for the public defence. Any part of the land which was not enclosed, cleared, and cultivated, within eighteen years, was to revert to the trustees. By another regulation, more reconcilable with good policy, the importation of negroes, and the use of rum, were absolutely prohibited.

These restrictions drove many settlers into Carolina, where lands were held in fee simple. The number of inhabitants in the colony continued nevertheless to increase. In 1734, about six hundred emigrants arrived;

GEORGIA.

but, being principally idle and dissolute characters, the "cankers of a calm world," they were little fitted for the toil of clearing a wilderness of wood. For the purpose of obtaining settlers more suitable to the business of colonizing, the trustees divided the country on the Savannah and other rivers, into lots of fifty acres, and offered a lot to each person who would make a settlement. In consequence of these regulations, a large number of hardy emigrants arrived soon afterwards from Scotland and Germany. In addition to a previous grant, the parliament now gave 25,000*l.* for the benefit of the colony. In this state of things war took place between Spain and England, an event calculated to retard the prosperity of Georgia, from her liability to invasion on the side of Florida and Havanna. Oglethorpe was appointed commander-in-chief of the king's forces in South Carolina and Georgia, and immediately applied himself assiduously to the task of defence. He brought with him six hundred soldiers into Georgia; and having erected forts for the defence of the province, and secured the friendship of the Creeks, whom the Spaniards had endeavoured to excite to hostilities, he found himself strong enough to attempt an attack upon a Spanish settlement. South Carolina granted a large sum of money for the purpose, and troops were raised in the Carolinas and Virginia. With these troops, four hundred regulars and some Indians, Oglethorpe invaded Florida. St. Augustine was the object of his enterprise, which proved unsuccessful, and was abandoned, greatly to his mortification. In 1742, this invasion was retaliated by a large Spanish force. An expedition of thirty-two sail, with three thousand men, arrived in the river Alatomaha, and took possession of Fort St. Simon, which had been previously abandoned by Oglethorpe. The Spanish commander next attempted to proceed through the woods to the attack of Fort Frederica, on the Island of St. Simon; but finding unlooked-for obstacles in his way, and being deceived by a stratagem of Oglethorpe, he re-embarked his troops in haste, leaving behind him many pieces of artillery, provisions, and

military stores, and returned to Florida. Georgia was preserved on this occasion principally by the address and skill of General Oglethorpe.

The restoration of peace which took place soon afterwards, freed Georgia from one source of disquiet; but the condition of the colony was materially different from that of the others settled by the English in North America. Notwithstanding upwards of 100,000*l.* sterling had been granted by parliament and individuals, and that emigration had been encouraged by premiums, the state of things at the middle of the eighteenth century was very unpromising. Many of the emigrants had abandoned their settlements; and those who remained, with difficulty obtained a scanty subsistence. The regulations respecting the tenure of land above mentioned, and the prohibition of the importation of negroes and rum, operated to produce this effect. By prohibiting the importation of rum, the trustees had deprived the colonists of an excellent market in the West Indies for the sale of their lumber. So trifling was the produce of this now productive soil, that, about the year 1750, the whole annual exports of Georgia did not exceed 10,000*l.* sterling. In the year 1820, her exports exceeded \$6,500,000. The complaints arising from their mismanagement, at last induced the trustees to surrender the charter to the crown. In 1752, the government was taken into the hands of the king, and the same privileges and regulations, as to land and trade, that prevailed in the other colonies, were extended to Georgia. The first good effect of the change of government was felt in the establishment of a General Assembly of representatives in 1755. In 1763, all the lands lying between the rivers Alatomaha and St. Mary's, were annexed to Georgia by a royal proclamation. From this period the colony began to make rapid progress in prosperity and population; the rich swamps and lowlands on the rivers began to be brought into cultivation, and the effects of judicious government were soon visible in the increased amount of exports. In 1763, the value of exports was no more than 27,000*l.* sterling; but in 1773.

the value had arisen to upwards of 121,000*l*. Much of this increase of prosperity is attributed to the influence of Governor Wright, who first set the example of cultivating the lowlands and river swamps, thereby acquiring for himself an ample fortune, and directing the industry of the people into a proper channel.

Georgia, at the commencement of the American Revolution, was only in the infancy of her strength, and had just begun to enjoy some of the blessings of peace and the advantages of a better system of government. Her inhabitants had never experienced the evils which the tyrannical administration of the Stuarts had inflicted on the older provinces, and knew the operations of the royal government only by its favourable contrast with that of the trustees. Notwithstanding these motives for continuing in connexion with England, the people of this province did not hesitate to take part with their northern brethren. In March, 1775, they appointed a delegate to Congress; and in July of the same year, a convention of delegates assembled, by whom the sanction of the province was given to the measures of Congress. During the war which ensued, Georgia was overrun by the British troops, and the principal inhabitants were compelled to abandon their possessions and fly into the neighbouring states. In proportion to their numbers, the exertions and losses of her citizens were as great as in any of the states.





CHAPTER XIII.

Summary of Events before the Revolution.

WE have seen that, from the year 1497, when the continent of North America was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot, more than a century elapsed before any permanent settlement was effected on its shores. The greater part of the territory of the United States, east of Florida, was originally called Virginia, in honour of Elizabeth of England, the virgin queen, as poets and courtiers styled her; who, following the practice of other European monarchs, granted large tracts of country, without respect to the rights of the aboriginal possessors. The earliest settlement, in pursuance of these grants, we have seen, was made within the limits of the present state of Virginia, in 1607, under the authority of James I. Seven years afterwards, a colony of Dutch commenced a settlement upon the present Island of New York, and retained possession until 1664, when it was

surrendered to an armament fitted out by Charles II. Massachusetts was settled in 1620, by a body of Puritans from England. The next settlement, in order of time, was that of Delaware by the Swedes. Connecticut and Maryland were colonized contemporaneously; the former by emigrants from Massachusetts, in 1663; the latter by a party of Roman Catholics from England, under Lord Baltimore. Religious persecutions drove a number of persons from Massachusetts, and led to the founding of Rhode Island, in 1635; New Hampshire was settled in 1637, principally from the same cause. In 1663, some of the Virginia settlers laid the foundation of North Carolina, which was followed by the settlement of South Carolina in 1670. New Jersey, on which the Dutch and Swedes had made partial settlements early in the seventeenth century, was not effectually colonized till after the year 1670. In Pennsylvania also, a small body of Swedes had planted themselves at an early period. The settlement increased slowly, until the arrival, in 1681, of William Penn, with a numerous company of Quakers, whom the prospect of relief from persecution induced to emigrate. The last settled of the original thirteen states was Georgia, founded in 1732, by General Oglethorpe.

The history of all new colonies, is necessarily one of hardships and suffering. In the case of most of the American settlements, however, the ordinary evils were augmented by the vindictive hostility of the natives, who saw with indignation the tide of Christian dominion gradually overflowing their land, and who used every means that nature had supplied them with, to stay the progress of the wave. Their most sagacious chiefs, from Philip of Pokanoket, to Tecumseh, have endeavoured to unite the different tribes in a common purpose of opposition, but without success. The superior arts of the Europeans generally triumphed in the engagements of bodies of men; but it was in the surprisal and assault upon individuals or families, that Indian hostility was most effective. The settlements of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Maine, and Virginia, espe-

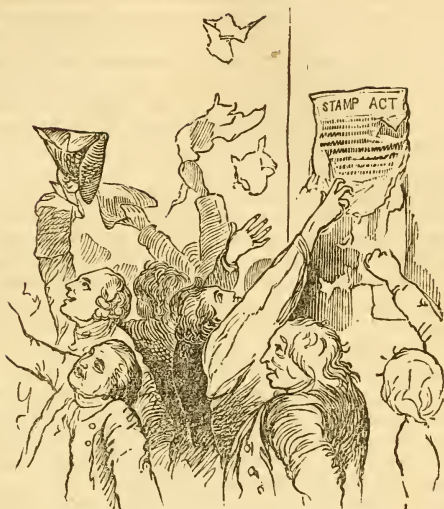
cially, were, for a great number of years, the theatres of sanguinary conflicts. In Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, a system of policy more humane and prudent conciliated the savages, and advanced the prosperity of the settlements. Another fruitful source of disquiet to the colonies, was the adjoining settlements in Canada. The British and French provinces, which would otherwise, it is probable, have remained in peace with each other, were compelled to take part in the unceasing wars of the mother countries, and wasted their young strength in supporting projects of European aggrandizement, in which they themselves, were but remotely interested. This grievance fell with the greatest weight upon the colonies of New York and New England. The influence which the governors of Canada have always possessed over the Indians, enabled the French to direct the full force of savage hostility against the English colonists (as the British, since their possession of Canada, have done against the United States). The frontiers were, during every war, a scene of desolation and bloodshed. The colonists saw, that nothing short of the expulsion of the French from Canada would be sufficient to secure their repose. They devised frequent plans for the conquest of that province, and urgently called on the British government for assistance. The aid they received was feebly and reluctantly given. In 1690, commissioners from the eastern and middle colonies met at New York, to concert measures for an expedition against the French colonies. The enterprise failed, through the tardiness of the British admiral. Similar attempts were made in 1692, and 1696; but from similar causes, they also were unsuccessful.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the colonies enjoyed a short period of repose. The renewal of the war in Europe, however, brought upon them again all the horrors of Indian and French hostility. New York and New England had previously been the chief theatre of Indian incursions; but the extension of their settlements on the Ohio, gave the French an opportunity of

leading the savages against the frontier inhabitants of Pennsylvania and Virginia. The colonies of South Carolina and Georgia were equally harassed, during the first half of the eighteenth century, by the Spaniards and southern Indians. In the year 1745, a resolute and successful attack was made upon the strong fort of Louisbourg, in the island of Cape Breton, by a small body of New Englanders, headed by William Pepperell, a merchant of Boston.

After the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, the colonies were, for a short period, unmolested, until the conflicting pretensions of the two nations to lands on the Ohio, produced another contest. To enable themselves the more effectually to resist their enemies, some of the colonies proposed, about this time, the formation of a federal government, to be administered by a grand council, chosen by the provincial assemblies. The British ministry, however, refused to accede to the project, without such modifications as would have given them the absolute control over the general congress; and the colonies being equally averse to this alteration, the plan was abandoned.

The year 1755 was rendered memorable by the defeat of the British general, Braddock, whose army was saved from entire ruin, by the skill of Washington, then a colonel of provincial militia, and by the courage of the colonial troops. In 1758, Fort Du Quesne, now Pittsburg, was taken by the British and provincial troops. Louisbourg, which had been restored to France, was also taken; and the tide of success set so strongly in favour of the British, that in the succeeding years Quebec and the whole of Canada were conquered. The American colonies, now relieved in a great measure from a state of harassing warfare, began to acquire, with great rapidity, wealth and population. Their improved condition attracted the notice of the mother country; who, forgetting that the colonies had struggled almost unaided through their difficulties, many of which difficulties had arisen from her absurd and oppressive regulations, assumed the credit of their thriving appearance,



Stamp Act Riot.

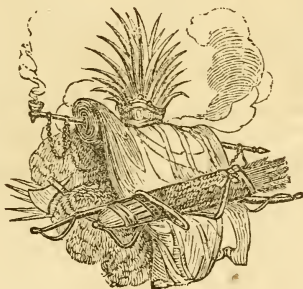
and resolved to provide some remuneration for her fancied exertions in their behalf. The inhabitants of Great Britain laboured at this time under a load of taxation, part of which burden they determined to transfer to the Americans. The first step taken in pursuance of this resolution, was to impose a stamp duty on instruments of writing executed in the provinces. An act was accordingly passed to this effect by the British parliament, in 1765. It was resisted from the first moment by the colonies, and serious riots immediately ensued. Delegates from the several provinces assembled at Philadelphia, who, with great unanimity, agreed upon a declaration of rights, and a statement of their

grievances. The people at large entered into associations against the importations of British manufactures, which, notwithstanding their previous dependence for clothing upon England, were adhered to almost universally. This determined resolution compelled the British ministry to repeal the obnoxious act. The concession was received with gratitude, and for a short period tranquillity and prosperity prevailed. The intention of subjecting the colonies to the payment of taxes was not, however, abandoned.

In 1767, an act was passed, laying duties on certain articles imported into the colonies. The latter, equally determined in their resolution not to submit to what they rightly deemed an oppressive and unlawful measure, refused to recognize the right. The British government at length repealed all the duties, except those upon tea. To counteract the design of collecting this duty, the inhabitants of the provinces entered into an agreement, not to import or consume the article. For some time, matters remained in suspense, without any direct opposition to the laws. At length a large quantity of tea being sent to Boston, it was seized by the people and thrown into the sea. When intelligence of this proceeding reached England, measures of the most vindictive character were resolved upon. An act was passed for closing the port of Boston, and other acts directed against the charter of Massachusetts, evincing a resolution on the part of Great Britain, which, if submitted to, would have proved fatal to the liberties of America. The flame of indignation broke forth in all parts of the continent. Even those provinces the most remote from Massachusetts, and which had experienced, practically, none of the evils of which that province complained, were zealous and ardent in the common cause.

Massachusetts assembled a provincial congress, voted to raise men and money, and recommended a general assembly of the provinces to be held at Philadelphia. According to this recommendation, a congress of delegates convened in September, 1774, and after approving

of the proceedings in Massachusetts, and pledging themselves not to import from, nor export to Great Britain, concluded their session by addressing an earnest and firm but respectful remonstrance to the British government. The latter, still resolved to force her colonies to submission, sent over a large additional military force, and passed laws restraining the trade of all the colonies, except North Carolina, Delaware, and New York. By this exception, they hoped to produce disunion among the provinces; but the expectation was vain. These colonies spurned an advantage offered to them at the expense of their sisters. In the meantime, warlike preparations were making in Massachusetts, as well as on the British side, and it was soon perceived that a contest was unavoidable.





Battle of Lexington.

CHAPTER XIX.

The Revolution.

LEXINGTON, in Massachusetts, was the scene of the first conflict between the Americans and English. Some military stores having been deposited at Concord, about eighteen miles from Boston, General Gage, the British commander, sent a body of eight hundred regulars, on the 18th of April, 1775, to obtain possession of them. Intelligence of their intentions had previously

reached the country, and the alarm was given by the ringing of bells and the firing of guns. At Lexington, the British fell in with a small party of seventy militiamen, upon whom they fired, and killed eight, wounding many more. The fire was returned by the militia, who then retreated. At Concord, the British found another party of militia, upon whom they again fired. Having succeeded in destroying the stores, they commenced their



Retreat from Concord.

retreat, in the progress of which they were reinforced by Lord Percy with nine hundred men. During this retreat the Americans kept up a constant fire; and, though the British party effected their return to Boston, it was

with a loss of two hundred and seventy-three, in killed, wounded and prisoners. A strong reinforcement arrived soon afterwards from England, and was principally stationed in the town of Boston, while the New England troops occupied different posts in the vicinity. An important eminence called Bunker Hill, near Boston, was taken possession of, and partial entrenchments were thrown up by the provincials on the night of the 16th of June. The number of militia and others, by whom the post was occupied, was about fifteen hundred. At noon of the next day a body of 3,000 British regulars advanced to dislodge them. The provincials reserved their fire until the British had approached to within one hundred yards of the works, when they discharged it with such destructive effect, that the whole column retreated in the utmost confusion. Twice did these undisciplined patriots put to flight a body of veteran troops double their own number. At the third onset, the powder of the Americans began to fail; their position was raked by the ships and the British field-pieces; their redoubt was assailed on three sides at once, and, having in vain endeavoured to oppose the bayonets of the British with the butts of discharged guns, they were compelled to abandon their post. Their retreat was effected in good order over Charlestown neck. In this glorious action the Americans killed or wounded upwards of one thousand of the enemy. Their own loss did not exceed four hundred; but among the killed was General Warren, whose death was greatly and universally lamented.

The Continental Congress, which convened again at Philadelphia, on the 10th of May, now determined to raise forces in the name of the United Colonies. On the 15th of June, they unanimously elected George Washington, then a member from Virginia, commander-in-chief of the troops. On the 2d of July, he arrived at Cambridge, and took command of the forces stationed there. With these undisciplined troops, ill supplied with munitions of war, Washington undertook the siege, or rather the blockade of Boston. Towards the close of this year, a gallant but rash attempt was made upon



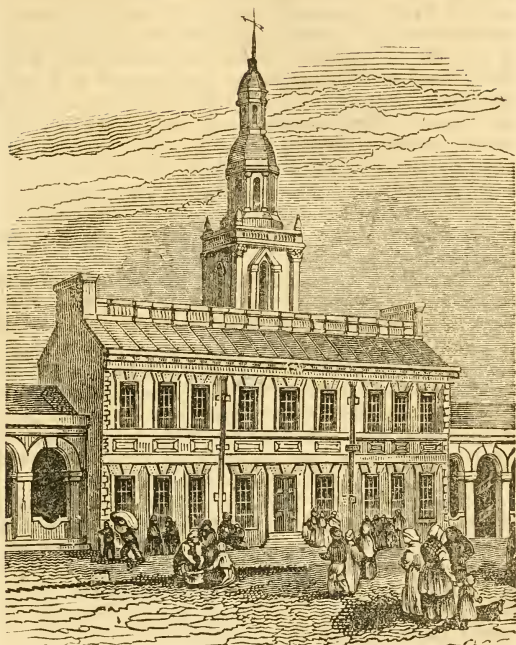
Siege of Boston.

Canada, by a body of provincials, under Generals Montgomery and Arnold. The former invaded Canada by the lakes, while the latter ascended the Kennebeck, and after a march through the wilderness, during which the men underwent excessive toils and privations, they succeeded in reaching Quebec. Here they found themselves without the means of carrying on a regular siege, and, after a month's delay, they attempted to carry the place by escalade. Two attacks were made at once, by Montgomery and Arnold. The former was killed, while gallantly leading his men. The latter was wounded. Many of the Americans were killed or captured, after a great display of valor, and the remainder were driven from the walls. The attempt was then abandoned, and the survivors with difficulty reached the United States. The British remained in possession of Boston until March, 1776, when they embarked on board of the fleet, and sailed for Halifax. General Washington then moved his army southward, and established his head-quarters at New York.

On the 28th of June, an attack was made upon Fort Moultrie, which was situated on Sullivan's Island, and protected the entrance to Charleston, in South Carolina. The British land forces were led by Sir Henry Clinton, and Admiral Sir Peter Parker commanded the naval force. The fort was defended by Colonel Moultrie. The battle commenced about eleven o'clock in the morning, and continued with but little intermission until seven in the evening, when the fire slackened, and soon ceased on both sides. The land forces had landed on Long Island, which was separated from Sullivan's Island only by a narrow channel, fordable at low tide; but the channel had been deepened recently by the prevalence of easterly winds, and Clinton found it impossible to bring his troops into action. During the engagement one of the ships grounded, and on the garrison firing a few shots at her on the next morning, her crew set her on fire and deserted her. She was then boarded by a party of Americans, who seized her colors, fired some of her guns at Admiral Parker, filled their boats with her stores, and then quitted her. She soon blew up. The fleet and troops soon after departed for New York.

While these affairs were in progress, Congress had vainly attempted to obtain a repeal of those edicts which the British government had directed against the freedom of America. They addressed themselves to the King, to the Parliament, and to the people. Finding their remonstrances fruitless, these illustrious republicans, than whom none of loftier spirit or more steadfast virtue ever upheld the liberties of a country, declared the colonies free and independent, and established a general government. This solemn act took place on the 4th of July, 1776, in the building now called Independence Hall, in Philadelphia.

On the 23d of August, British troops to the number of twenty-four thousand, commanded by Sir William Howe, landed on Long Island, about nine miles from New York. The American forces at this time amounted in number to about twenty-seven thousand, but one-



Independence Hall.

fourth were sick, and the remainder consisted principally of raw and undisciplined troops. The main body lay on York Island, but a strong detachment, under Generals Sullivan and Putnam, was posted on Long Island, near the village of Brooklyn. Orders had been given that all the passes in the range of hills which separated the two armies should be strictly guarded.

One, however, escaped the notice of the Americans, or was but slightly guarded; and by this pass the British, under Howe and Clinton, made their way on the night of the 26th of August. By this means Sullivan's flank was gained, while his attention was occupied by a brisk cannonade kept up on his front by Generals Grant and De Heister. The consequences were extremely disastrous, for when the real attack was made early on the morning of the 27th, overcome by the superiority of numbers, and attacked on two sides at once, the Americans were compelled to take refuge in their intrenched camp, after suffering severely in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

As soon as the commencement of the engagement was announced, Washington had crossed over from New York to Brooklyn, seeing immediately the impossibility of making a successful stand against a force so much his superior in numbers and discipline; he confined his exertions to the safe withdrawal of the troops from the island. Sir William Howe elated with his success, was only deterred from an immediate attack on the American position by the firm front presented by Washington, and his ignorance of the small number opposed to him.

On the night of the 28th, that celebrated retreat was effected, which gained for the American leader so distinguished a name among the warriors of the earth. With the triumphant array of the British army in front, and a powerful fleet prepared to intercept him in the rear, Washington withdrew across a broad river, his defeated forces, and all his military stores and artillery, except a small quantity of provisions and some heavy guns. In the morning the rising sun displayed to the astonished Britons, the last American divisions crossing the waters, and already far beyond the reach of annoyance or pursuit.

Deeming it inexpedient to risk a general battle, Washington also retired from New York Island, which was entered by the British on the 14th of September. The retreat of the Americans was continued through New Jersey and across the Delaware into Pennsylvania.

Fort Washington, the only post left on New York Island, was attacked on the 12th of November, and surrendered, after an obstinate resistance. The garrison, consisting of 2700 men, fell into the hands of the enemy. Fort Lee, on the Jersey shore, opposite, was also taken, but the garrison effected their escape. In addition to these misfortunes, great numbers of the militia, whose term of service had expired, returned to their homes, and the remainder were dispirited by the success of the enemy, and destitute of every article of comfort.

The British pursued with rapidity, but were unable to reach the Delaware before the retreating army had crossed. The pursuit was then given up, and the main body of the enemy cantoned in the vicinity of the river.

During the autumn and part of the winter of 1776, the prospects of the United States wore a most gloomy aspect. The once formidable army of Washington, was reduced by desertion, disease, and the expiration of the term of service, to a handful of half-naked and disheartened men; while the invaders were numerous, well organized, and flushed with success.

The idea of submission was, however, spurned both by Congress and the army; and the enterprise of Washington soon gave a brighter aspect to affairs. Detachments of Hessian troops had been stationed at Trenton, Bordentown, and Princeton. Upon one or more of these points he resolved to make an attack. Accordingly, on the evening of Christmas day, he, with the main body of the American army, twenty-four hundred strong, crossed the Delaware about nine miles above Trenton. The night was tempestuous, with rain and sleet, and the river encumbered with floating ice, so that the passage, although begun soon after midnight, was not fully effected until three o'clock, and one hour more elapsed before the march could be commenced. The Americans moved in two divisions along the roads leading to the town, and their operations were so well combined, and executed with such precision, that the two attacks on the British outposts were made within three minutes of each other. The pickets attempted



Battle of Trenton.

resistance, but were almost immediately driven in upon the main body, which was forming hurriedly in line. Colonel Rahl, their commander, soon after fell, mortally wounded; the confusion of the soldiery became irremediable, and after a loss of about twenty killed, one thousand men laid down their arms and surrendered their munitions and artillery. On the American side, the loss in battle amounted to only two killed and four wounded, the latter including James Monroe, afterwards President of the United States.

Two other divisions of the American army, commanded respectively by Generals Irvine and Cadwalader, were instructed to cross at the same time with Washington's division; but meeting with unexpected impediments in the floating ice, they were compelled to return without effecting their object.

Washington recrossed the Delaware the same day with the spoils and trophies of his foes, and from that

moment,—though reverses frequently dimmed the brilliancy of the prospect—hope never again deserted the cause of American independence.

Washington again crossed the Delaware and marched to Trenton, where, on the 1st of January, 1777, he found himself at the head of five thousand men. Lord Cornwallis, however, advanced with a superior force. A little creek, called the Assumpinck, was all that divided the two armies. On the 2d of January the British made several attempts to cross this creek, but were foiled until night separated the combatants, and both parties kindled their camp-fires.

It was evident to Washington that the conflict to which he was exposed presented no hope of a favourable result, and that a retreat across the river before his present enemy, appeared likely to prove a still more disastrous alternative. Amid these critical difficulties the daring resolution was taken to decamp from his present position, gain the rear of the enemy at Princeton, overthrow the division posted in that town, and then move upon New Brunswick, where a weak force guarded the principal depots of the British army.

Accordingly, at one on the morning of the 3d of January, the camp-fires were renewed and the guard paraded as usual, but the army had silently begun its movement upon Princeton, which was known to be occupied by three British regiments under Colonel Mawhood. At a short distance from the town, they encountered two of these regiments, marching forward in order to co-operate in the expected battle, and a warm engagement immediately commenced. The American general was well aware that the existence of the republic hung suspended in the scale of victory, and he exerted himself as one who knew the importance of the object, and felt that success depended upon his efforts. Wherever the fire was hottest, or the press of battle most fearful, Washington was sure to be found guiding the thunders of war, and animating all by his language and example. At length the British line was broken and the two regiments separated. Colonel Mawhood, with the division

in the van, pushed rapidly forward for the main army, while the other regiment, cut off from this point of support, fled in confusion across the fields to New Brunswick.

The Americans now pressed the remaining regiment, which, at first, attempted a defence in the college; but this was soon abandoned, and those who were not captured, escaped only by a precipitate flight. The British loss amounted to one hundred killed and three hundred prisoners; the conquerors had to lament the death of General Mercer, an experienced officer, much respected by the commander-in-chief.

The distant roar of the American artillery at Princeton, first announced to Cornwallis the escape of his active adversary. Alarmed for the safety of his magazines, he instantly broke up from the Assumpinck, and commenced a forced march upon New Brunswick; moving with such celerity, as nearly to overtake the American rear at Princeton. Washington, finding it impossible to take the stores by surprise, retired with his army to winter quarters at Morristown; while the British concentrated their forces at Amboy and New Brunswick.

During the spring of 1777, Washington's masterly manœuvres prevented the enemy, though possessing a vastly superior force, from advancing to Philadelphia by land. General Howe, therefore, changed his plan of operations, and determined to attack the city from the south. He sailed for the Chesapeake, and landed at the head of Elk River. Washington, as soon as the arrival of the fleet in the Chesapeake was known, pushed forward with his army, and opposed the enemy at Chad's Ford, on the Brandywine.

On the 11th of September, Howe divided his troops into two divisions, and gave the command of one to Cornwallis, and of the other to Knyphausen. Knyphausen with his column, advanced to Chad's Ford, as if to force his passage across the stream. The other division, under Cornwallis, crossed the Brandywine at the forks, and advanced with the intention of turning the American right. General Sullivan, who commanded



Battle of Brandywine.

that wing of the army marched up the bank of the creek to meet the enemy. About half-past four, before he had sufficient time to form his line, he was attacked by Cornwallis. The attack was severe, and the line not being entirely formed, those on the right broke and fled, while the remainder were exposed on the flank as well as the front. General Greene now advanced with the reserve, and covering Sullivan's retreat, checked the pursuit. Knyphausen now made a real attack on Chad's Ford; but General Wayne who was left by Washington to defend the pass, hearing of the ill-success of the first conflict, effected an orderly retreat. That night Washington retired with his whole force to Chester, and, the next morning continued his retreat to Philadelphia.

In the battle of Brandywine, the continental army lost three hundred killed, and six hundred wounded, of whom between three and four hundred were taken prisoners. The British loss was stated by Howe at one hundred killed and four hundred wounded. In this battle General La Fayette first served in the American cause. In the

early part of the action he received a wound in the leg, but he continued in the field cheering his men till the battle was decided.

Washington, convinced by the result of this engagement that general battles were to be avoided in the undisciplined state of his army, now left Philadelphia to its fate. On the 26th of September, Sir William Howe entered the city. His army was principally stationed at Germantown, about six miles from Philadelphia.

Washington, whose lofty spirit was never discouraged by adverse fortune, determined to make an attack upon this post. The plan was well conceived, but accidental causes rendered it unsuccessful. A severe action took place, in which the loss of the Americans was double that of the British.

On the 22d of October, the British made a combined attack, by land and water upon Forts Mifflin and Red Bank, which commanded the passage of the river below Philadelphia. The attack was made and sustained with great gallantry, until night separated the combatants, when the enemy retired with great loss. The next morning the action re-commenced; but at length the British withdrew, after setting fire to two of their ships which had grounded the previous evening.

On the 10th of November, the attack was renewed on Fort Mifflin by the whole disposable force of the British; but, the Americans within it, under the command of Colonel Samuel Smith, though their guns were nearly all dismounted, their block-houses and palisades beaten down, and themselves wearied out by the necessity for unremitting exertion, held the post until it was no longer tenable; and on the 16th, after a protracted contest of six days, the garrison was withdrawn under cover of the night.

An overwhelming force was sent under Lord Cornwallis to attack Fort Mercer on Red Bank. On the approach of this great force the fort was evacuated by the garrison; and the British army was put into full communication with their fleet, and secured in their possession of Philadelphia.

During the progress of these operations, events had occurred in the northern part of the United States, eminently beneficial to the American cause. For the purpose of opening a communication between New York and Canada, and cutting off the intercourse between the eastern and southern states, a force of upwards of ten thousand men, under General Burgoyne, advanced by way of Lake Champlain, towards Albany, in June, 1777. Their first operations were highly successful. Ticonderoga, garrisoned by above three thousand men, surrendered after a short siege; and, notwithstanding the obstacles thrown in his way by the provincials, Burgoyne reached the Hudson, within thirty-six miles of Albany. The aspect of affairs, however, soon changed. The American army, under General Gates, was stationed in his front, and the patriotism of the people rendered supplies of provisions very precarious. A body of Hessians, in number about five hundred, which had been despatched by Burgoyne to seize some stores of provisions at Bennington, was attacked by General Starke, with about an equal number of the neighbouring militia. The greater part of the Hessian detachments was captured, and many were killed or wounded. A reinforcement, which was sent by Burgoyne, met with the same fate from the hands of these gallant yeomanry. After vainly endeavouring to retreat, and after two actions, in which his best troops were defeated by the Americans, General Burgoyne surrendered his whole army at Saratoga, on the 17th of October. This memorable event proved of the utmost importance to the cause of independence. It gave confidence to the people, afforded a supply of the munitions of war, and produced a powerful effect upon the dispositions of foreign governments. Soon after the intelligence reached Europe, a treaty of alliance was concluded between the United States and France, in pursuance of which a fleet and army were despatched to the assistance of the Americans. Fortunately for the British, the French fleet had an unusually long passage to the Delaware; otherwise, it is probable that Sir William Howe's army, which continued in the



Burgoyne's Encampment on the Hudson.

vicinity of Philadelphia until June, 1777, would have shared the fate of Burgoyne's. The preceding winter had been spent by Washington and his army in a hutted encampment at Valley Forge. Here they endured, with the most heroic fortitude, sufferings and privations, under a small part of which mere mercenaries would have sunk. While they occupied this encampment, the Baron Steuben, formerly an aid-de-camp to Frederick the Great, arrived and offered his services to Congress. They were most thankfully received, and, on the recommendation of Washington, he was appointed Inspector-General of the army, with the rank of Major-General. His long military practice in the Prussian



Baron Steuben Drilling the American Army.

service, eminently qualified him for this office, and he proceeded at once to commence his duties. After expending great toil and patience in the training of the troops, he at length brought them to such a state of discipline as would not suffer in comparison with that of the best troops of Europe.

The stubborn resolution of the Americans bore them out in the great privations at Valley Forge, and on the retreat of the British, they advanced with alacrity in pursuit. Their numbers and state of discipline, were not yet, however, such as to authorize Washington to lead them into a general engagement; and, except at Monmouth, where a partial action took place, to the advantage of the Americans, the British reached New York without much loss.

During the remainder of the year 1778, no other event of importance occurred, than an attempt on Rhode Island, by the Americans under General Sullivan; which failed; owing to the want of the promised co-operation on the part of the French admiral.

The year 1779 was chiefly passed by the British in

marauding excursions. Plunder and revenge appeared to be their object; and havoc, and misery, and desolation, marked their footsteps. Their excesses awakened a fierce spirit of resentment in the American people, and added to the number of the republican army. The principal operations of the hostile armies were in the Southern States. Owing to the total want of preparation, Savannah, and the whole state of Georgia, fell an easy conquest to the British troops under Colonel Campbell. General Lincoln defended South Carolina with great obstinacy, and various success, until the middle of September 1779, when the arrival of the French fleet under Count D'Estaing, encouraged the Americans to drive back their assailants, and with the help of the French to undertake the siege of Savannah. The enterprise failed, owing to a hurried and premature attempt to carry the place by storm; but it was conducted with extreme gallantry, and only abandoned after heavy losses.

The only event of importance in the north during this year, was the surprisal of the strong post at Stony Point, which was carried by assault by a small body of Americans headed by the gallant General Wayne. He entered the place at night, with fixed bayonets, and captured the whole British garrison without discharging a single musket.

It was about this time that General Putnam, being reconnoitering with a party of one hundred and fifty men, at a place called Horse Neck, was surprised by the approach of General Tryon with fifteen hundred men. After vainly attempting to retard the enemy's advance, he ordered his men to retire into a neighbouring swamp, and then, putting spurs to his horse, he dashed fearlessly down the stone stairs, at that place. These stairs consisted of nearly one hundred steps, cut out of the solid rock, for the accommodation of foot-passengers who should wish to take a short way to a church, or the top of the hill. The British dragoons were afraid to follow him. A volley of musketry was poured after him without effect, one ball only passing through his



Capture of Stony Point.

hat. He rode to Stamford, from which he soon returned with reinforcements, and harassed Tryon on his retreat.

In the summer of 1780, four vessels were fitted out by the American commissioners at Paris, and the command given to John Paul Jones. With two of these vessels, the *Bon Homme Richard* of forty guns, and the *Pallas* of thirty-two, he encountered on the evening of the 23d of September, off Flamborough Head, the British frigates *Serapis* of forty, and the *Countess of Scarborough* of twenty guns. The action commenced about seven o'clock, and continued with unremitting fury till half-past ten, when the *Serapis* surrendered to Jones, who



Action of Bon Homme Richard and Serapis.

immediately took possession of her, his own ship being in a sinking condition. In the meantime the Pallas had captured the Countess of Scarborough. This double engagement took place on a moonlight night, very near Flamborough Head, and was witnessed by thousands of spectators who had been drawn together by the noise of the cannonading. The Bon Homme Richard went down on the 25th, when Jones sailed for Holland with his prizes. Besides these two vessels, in this short cruise, this gallant sailor took prizes estimated to be worth more than 40,000*l*. He was honoured with the thanks of Congress, and a gold medal was struck to commemorate his victory.



Commodore Paul Jones.

In 1780, the war was continued with vigour, in the South. A large force was despatched by the British to Carolina. Charleston was compelled to surrender, and a great part of the country overrun by the invaders. To relieve the inhabitants, Congress despatched General Gates with a respectable force. He unfortunately resolved to fight a general battle, and was totally defeated by Cornwallis, at Camden, when many gallant and faithful soldiers perished, among whom was the deeply-lamented and brave old soldier, Baron de Kalb.

Cornwallis then directed his views to the conquest of North Carolina; but his plans were frequently retarded and frustrated by the successes of Sumpter, Marion, and other distinguished partizans, and the indomitable courage of the inhabitants. Gates was succeeded in this command by General Greene, whose talents soon restored hope to the Americans. By dint of great exertions, he collected together the appearance of an army, with which he was enabled to make head against the British.

In September of this year, a traitorous attempt, on the

part of General Arnold, to deliver up the important post of West Point to the British, was fortunately counter-acted. Arnold escaped to the enemy; but Major André, a British officer, the accomplice of his treason, was taken and deservedly hanged.

In January, 1781, a brilliant victory was gained by General Morgan, at the Cowpens, with an army inferior in force to the British, and composed, in a great measure of militia. The efforts of Cornwallis to recover the prisoners and to attack the American army in detail, were foiled by Greene's celebrated retreat into Virginia, when, being joined by reinforcements, he found himself strong enough to re-enter North Carolina, and engage in a pitched battle with Cornwallis at Guilford court-house. The heavy loss sustained in this action, and the scantiness of supplies, compelled Cornwallis to abandon the upper country, and finally to retreat to Wilmington, on the coast.

General Greene, who had hitherto preserved Virginia as the basis of his operations, then formed the daring resolution of carrying the war into South Carolina; upon which, after some hesitation, Cornwallis marched upon Virginia, where the traitor Arnold had already landed, and commenced his work of invasion and desolation.

During the winter of 1780-81, Washington obtained from Congress permission to enlist soldiers for the whole war, with the important encouragement of a half-pay provision for the officers during life.

Washington's army retired into winter quarters in the early part of December. The Pennsylvania line occupied a station near Morristown; the Jersey troops lay around Pompton; those from New England were stationed on both sides of the Hudson, at and near West Point; and the New York line continued at Albany, for the purpose of resisting any movement from the side of Canada.

In January, 1781, the most disastrous consequences were apprehended from a general revolt of the Pennsylvania line, and another among the troops of New Jersey. The first was appeased by concessions imprudently made

by Congress to armed mutineers; the second, produced by the impunity of the former, was quelled by the decision and vigorous severity of the commander-in-chief.

Sir Henry Clinton endeavoured to turn these discontents to the advantage of the royal cause. It was creditable to the soldiers that they immediately arrested the British emissaries, and scornfully rejected all proffers of assistance. The great distress of the army, and the growing discontent of the people, sprang from the same cause; it was the system of forced requisitions, without which no supplies could be obtained for the American forces.

Washington saw that the two armies were so strongly posted, and so nearly equal in point of strength, that no important movements could be effected on either side. He accordingly directed his plans to the south, where he saw the possibility of striking a decisive blow against the British army in Virginia. La Fayette marched with twelve hundred men to the head of the Chesapeake, and, though disappointed in the expected co-operation of the French fleet, he proceeded southward, with the utmost celerity, to the seat of war. The royal troops, greatly increased by the arrival of reinforcements, were engaged in overrunning the whole state, committing everywhere the most wanton devastation of private property. The immediate junction of Cornwallis and Arnold formed an army not to be resisted by the power of the Americans; and La Fayette, after a bold advance, was obliged to fall back. This able retreat was conducted with judgment, and happily effected with a large proportion of his military stores, notwithstanding the exulting boast of the British general that "the boy could not escape him."

General Wayne advanced with fresh troops from the north; and after some sharp conflicts, Cornwallis suspended active operations by retreating to Portsmouth.

When an official communication was received, promising the early arrival of the Count De Grasse with a large naval armament, Washington and Rochambeau



La Fayette's Retreat.

resolved to effect a junction and to operate against New York. That city was protected by a force of 11,000 men, under Sir Henry Clinton. On the 6th of July, the allied armies met at Dobb's Ferry on the North River. Large reinforcements, however, arriving to the British at New York, and the fact that the arrangements of the Count De Grasse would allow but a short time for co-operation on the coast of America, determined Washington to turn his whole attention to the south.

La Fayette was ordered to assume such a position as would prevent Cornwallis from retreating to Charleston. He accordingly took post on James River, while the British general fortified himself at Yorktown, and Gloucester Point, with all his disposable forces. Towards the end of August, the Count De Grasse entered the Chesapeake and landed the Marquis St. Simon, with a strong body of French soldiers. The arrival of the

British admiral Graves brought on an indecisive naval battle, which was followed by some movements ending in the return of the British fleet to New York.

Washington's movement to the south was managed with such caution, that his design was not suspected until he had almost reached the Delaware, and was far beyond the reach of interruption. He had with him the whole French force, with more than two thousand of the continentals, leaving the defence of the Hudson to General Heath.

Sir Henry Clinton then used his utmost exertions to support Cornwallis, both by direct assistance and diversions to the north. One of these latter operations produced the capture and destruction of New London, by the traitor Arnold.

The allies proceeded down the Chesapeake, and on the 25th of September the last division of the army landed on the shores of James River, soon after which the siege of the British position was commenced in form. The Chesapeake was blockaded by the French fleet under the Count De Grasse. Including militia, the besiegers numbered about sixteen thousand men.

Yorktown is situated on the southern side of York River, a broad river in which a ship of the line can lie in safety. On the north bank, opposite to the town, is Gloucester Point, a long neck of land running far into the river, and approaching within a mile of Yorktown. These positions were both fortified by the British, the communications being preserved by batteries and several vessels of war. The works at Gloucester Point were occupied by about six hundred men, under Lieutenant Colonel Dundas, who was afterwards reinforced by Tarleton. The main British army lay encamped around York, under cover of outer redoubts and field-works.

The French general, De Choisy, was detached to blockade Gloucester. At his first approach, a brisk action was commenced, in which the British were worsted and compelled to retire within their fortifications.

On the 28th, the allies advanced by different roads to occupy the ground fixed upon. The British picquets and cavalry were driven in, and a further movement, on



Siege of Yorktown.

the next day, induced Cornwallis to abandon his outer lines. On the night of the 6th of October, the trenches of the first parallel were commenced, within six hundred yards of the works; and several redoubts and batteries were completed by the 9th and 10th. The fire of the besiegers then became so heavy that scarcely a shot was returned, and the *Charon*, of forty-four guns, with three large transports, was destroyed by shells and red-hot balls.

The high spirit of emulation and esteem that existed between the allies, produced the most beneficial effects upon the activity of all operations. On the night of the eleventh, the distance of the belligerents was reduced one-half by the commencement of the second parallel; but the fire of the besieged then became destructive, from several newly opened embrasures, and particularly from two advanced redoubts. The 14th was marked by the simultaneous storm of these two

outworks,—the one by the Americans, under La Fayette,—the other by the French troops under the Baron De Viomenil. Not a single shot was returned by the assailants: they advanced intrepidly under the enemy's fire, and took possession of the works at the point of the bayonet. The redoubts were immediately included in the parallel, and the cannon turned on their former masters.

Cornwallis now plainly saw that the fire of the new works would render his position untenable. A sally was attempted for the purpose of destroying the two batteries, but the troops were compelled to return without effecting their object. The enterprising commander then formed the daring resolution of crossing the river at night, with effectives only—routing De Choisy at Gloucester Point—and then pushing, by forced marches, for New York. This movement was in full progress, when a storm dispersed the boats and returned the British general to his former desperate situation.

On the morning of the 17th, Cornwallis asked for a cessation of hostilities, and negotiations commenced for a capitulation. On the 19th, the posts of Yorktown and Gloucester Point surrendered to General Washington, with the garrisons, exceeding 7,000 men, and all the military stores. The shipping and seamen were yielded to the Count De Grasse. The loss of the British, during the siege, was above five hundred; that of the allies was about three hundred, in killed and wounded.

General Greene was in the midst of a skilful and active campaign, marked by the sanguinary battles of Hobkirk's Hill, and the Eutaws, in which the fortune of America was gradually advancing to the ascendant. The conquest of York and the surrender of Cornwallis, however, was the crowning glory of the war, and was decisive of the contest. The British government, finding that all its efforts to reduce its former colonies to submission were ineffectual, reluctantly acknowledged their independence by a treaty signed on the 23d of September, 1783.

CHAPTER XV.

The United States.

THE successful issue of a conflict with so powerful a nation as Great Britain, was highly flattering to the national pride of the people of the United States, and gave them an elevated rank in the eyes of foreign nations. The mere establishment of their independence, however, they soon found was far from being sufficient to ensure their prosperity. The expenses of the war had created a debt of many millions, which remained to be paid. An excessive issue of paper currency had taken place, and produced the necessary consequence upon the public wealth and morals; and the system of confederation, which, even with the enthusiasm with which it was upheld, during the war, had been found inefficient now, when the impulse arising from a common danger no longer operated, became merely a nominal bond. The recommendations of Congress, though supported by the most urgent reasons, were generally disregarded; the country was drained of its specie to pay for foreign goods; the value of the public stock sunk to two shillings in the pound, in consequence of the want of funds to pay the interest, and everything indicated a dissolution of the confederacy, and approaching anarchy. This alarming state of things excited in the friends of order an earnest desire for a change in the confederation. At the instance of the legislature of Virginia, commissioners from five of the states assembled at Annapolis in 1786, who, having taken the subject of the commercial difficulties into consideration, proposed a meeting of delegates from each state for the purpose of revising the confederation. On the 19th of May, 1787, they convened at Philadelphia, and, on the 17th of September, laid before Congress the result of their labours. They declared that, in all their delibera-

tions, they had kept steadily in view the consolidation of the Union, in which is involved the public prosperity and safety, and they expressed an ardent wish that the constitution they had formed might promote the lasting welfare, and secure the freedom and happiness of the country, so dear to all. These views and desires were happily accomplished.* By that admirable constitution the ties of union between the states were drawn closer, the republic was rendered more formidable to other nations, and the general government gained the requisite power and authority in its internal concerns, without drawing too largely upon the liberties of the people. Public opinion, however, was divided on the question of its adoption or rejection. The subject was discussed with great warmth and ability on either side; conventions were called in each state. In some, the ratification of the constitution was obtained with difficulty; and it was not finally adopted by the little state of Rhode Island until after the lapse of two years. Eleven states having ratified it, the government went into operation in 1789.

However discordant the opinions of the American public in relation to the constitution, there was but one sentiment with regard to the individual by whom the office of president should be first filled. All eyes were turned upon Him by whom the liberties of the country had been vindicated in the field, and who, at the close of the contest, had retired to private life, without a stain upon the purity of his character. Washington was unanimously chosen President, and accepted the office with unfeigned reluctance. John Adams was chosen Vice President. The beneficial effects of the new system of government, administered, as it was, by such men, were soon perceived. Trade revived, confidence was restored, and the condition of the people sensibly improved. During the war that arose out of the French revolution, the United States remained neutral. The wise policy of Washington discouraged all proceedings tending to involve the country in a contest with either party.



General Wayne.

The feelings of a large portion of the community were warmly enlisted on the side of France, and would have urged the nation into hostilities with England. The neutral course pursued by the government met with opposition, and increased the hostility of the two parties, which, under the names of republicans and federalists, have so long divided the nation. In consequence of the hostility of the Indians, who, after defeating General St. Clair, were finally routed and dispersed by General Wayne, some additional regiments were raised, to support which an excise was laid on whiskey. An insurrection broke out in some of the western counties of Pennsylvania, which, however, the energy and prudence of the government soon suppressed. Washington was unani-

mously re-elected to the presidency in 1793; and on the approach of the period at which this second term expired, declined a re-election, in a farewell letter which breathes the purest patriotism and the warmest affection for his beloved country.

He was succeeded in office by John Adams, a distinguished actor in the Revolution. During his presidency, the French revolutionary government, disappointed in the object of engaging the United States in the war with England, pursued a course of insult and aggression towards them, which ended in hostilities. The American administration had forborne for a long time, but at length adopted measures of retaliation and defence. A provisional army of regular troops was established, and the navy was increased by several frigates. Washington was appointed by the unanimous consent of the Senate, lieutenant-general, and commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States. This illustrious citizen died shortly afterwards, leaving behind the character of the most pure and faultless of patriots. When information of his death reached Congress, resolutions expressive of the national grief for a public loss were passed; and it was recommended to the people of the United States to wear crape for thirty days, a measure which was universally adopted. Hostilities between the United States and France continued only a few months, and were altogether confined to the ocean. Two severe and well-fought actions took place between frigates, in both of which the Americans were victorious. The first, between the frigate *Constellation* of thirty-eight guns, and the French frigate *L'Insurgente* of about equal force, in which the latter was captured; the second was between the same American frigate, and *La Vengeance* of superior force, which made her escape in the night, after having, it was believed, struck her colours.

In 1801, a revolution took place in the administration of public affairs. The Republican party having become the majority, succeeded in electing their candidate, Mr. Jefferson, to the presidency, in opposition to Mr. Adams. During the first term of his official ca-

reer, the United States enjoyed a singular degree of commercial prosperity, while the benefits of free institutions were visible in the elevated character and happy condition of the people. The European war, a cessation of which had taken place, was renewed, after a short breathing time, in 1803. The principal belligerents, whose wide-spread schemes of hostility towards each other had, during the administrations of preceding presidents, occasionally depredated on neutrals, began about 1806, to display a more offensive demeanor. By their neutral position, the United States had gained a great accession of wealth, and excited the jealousies of the English, who saw them becoming the carriers of produce between France and her colonies. To counteract this commerce, the law of nations was disregarded, and neutral rights violated by the British government. For the purpose of cutting off the entire trade with France, they declared the greater part of the French coast in a state of blockade, without pursuing the ancient mode of stationing a naval armament to enforce it. The emperor Napoleon retaliated by an edict of a similar nature, the execution of which was evidently impracticable in the state of the French marine. The English then issued their memorable orders, in council, by which they presumed to forbid any trade whatever with France or her dependencies; and in a subsequent decree, Napoleon declared all neutral vessels denationalized which should suffer themselves to be visited by a vessel of war. In these hostile proceedings, the English were plainly the aggressors. They had, besides, outraged the national dignity of the United States, by an unprovoked attack upon the frigate *Chesapeake*; by the frequent impressment of American seamen, and by the hostile and insulting demeanor of their vessels of war, stationed at the mouths of American harbours, to enforce their orders in council. Remonstrances were tried in vain; and Congress resolved that the nation could not submit without a surrender of independence. The country was not, however, prepared for war; and although the aggressions of the English

far surpassed those of France in violence and magnitude, yet the wrongs inflicted by the latter could not be passed over without notice. A system of restrictions upon commerce, which should operate towards both belligerents, was therefore attempted. In December, 1807, an embargo was laid on all American vessels, the restrictions of which were enforced by several subsequent acts. After the experience of upwards of a year, and when it was supposed by many that this measure was producing the desired effect in Europe, Congress, yielding to the earnest petitions of the commercial interest, repealed the embargo law, and substituted an act interdicting the commercial intercourse with both Great Britain and France; but giving to the President authority to remove the restriction in case of an amicable arrangement.

In the year 1809, Mr. Jefferson having declined a re-election, James Madison was chosen President, and, at the same time George Clinton was re-chosen Vice President. In April an arrangement was made with Mr. Erskine, the British minister, by which the latter engaged on the part of his government, for the repeal of the obnoxious orders, and the President consented, on the other hand, to the renewal of the commercial intercourse between the two countries. The British government, however, did not think proper to ratify this act of their minister, on the ground of its having been concluded without sufficient authority. The non-intercourse with Great Britain was consequently renewed. Mr. Erskine was succeeded in his functions of ambassador by Mr. Jackson, memorable for having been the diplomatist at the attack upon Copenhagen. This person having, soon after the commencement of his correspondence with the secretary of state, offered a gross insult to the government, the President declined any further correspondence with him, and desired his recall. His government subsequently recalled him, but only to promote him to another station. In August, 1810, the French government officially announced to the American minister at Paris, that the Berlin and Milan decrees would cease to

operate on the 1st of November ensuing. The President accordingly issued a proclamation on the 2d of November, declaring that the intercourse between the United States and France might be lawfully renewed. In May, 1811, the British sloop of war *Little Belt*, one of the many armed vessels which that government had stationed on the American coast to harass the American commerce, had the audacity to fire upon the United States frigate *President*. A few shots from the latter were sufficient to cripple her. Indian hostilities, stimulated by the British, were added to this source of provocation. In November of the same year, an action was fought at Tippecanoe, between an army of regulars and militia, commanded by Governor Harrison, and a large body of Indians, in which the latter were defeated, with the loss of upwards of one hundred and seventy, killed and wounded.

The European belligerents still persisted in their system of spoliation. After the revocation of the Berlin and Milan decrees, the French captured forty-five of our vessels. From 1807, till 1812, the British took three hundred and eighty-nine of our vessels, which, with five hundred and twenty-eight taken between 1803 and 1807, made a total of nine hundred and seventeen captured by them in ten years. In the opinion of a majority of the nation, war was necessary to redress these wrongs.

CHAPTER XVI.

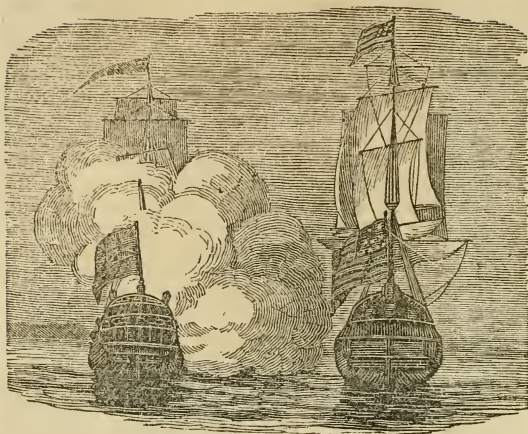
The War of 1812.

THE system of restrictions upon commerce was continued until 1812, when the increasing outrages of Great Britain called for more decided and effective measures. With a view to hostilities, the President was authorized to augment the number of the regular army. Volunteers

were accepted, and the few frigates belonging to the navy were ordered to be fitted out. War was declared on the 18th of June, 1812, having been recommended by the President, in a message to both houses. Notwithstanding the length of time in which hostilities had been meditated, they were commenced with a very imperfect state of preparation on the part of the Americans. An addition to the regular army, of 25,000 men, had been authorized; but few of them had been enlisted; and few persons were found sufficiently acquainted with military science to act as officers. The volunteers and militia were undisciplined, however zealous and patriotic. In consequence of these imperfect preparations, and the want of sufficient foresight in other respects on the part of the government, the first operations of the war were marked by singular ill-success.

An army, composed principally of volunteers and militia, under the command of General Hull, invaded Canada from the Michigan territory, in July; and, after a brief possession of a portion of the enemy's country, fell back to Detroit. The British, having the command of the lake, immediately cut off his communication with the state of Ohio, from which he had derived his supplies. Two attempts made to open the route failed of success. In this situation, a British force, under General Brock, advanced against the American troops; and, without waiting an attack, General Hull surrendered his army prisoners of war. He was afterwards tried by a court martial and condemned to be shot. The President approved the sentence, but remitted the punishment in consequence of the age and revolutionary services of the general.

On the Niagara frontier, the operations of the Americans were almost equally unfortunate. About one thousand troops, commanded by General Van Rensselaer, crossed the river in November, and attacked the British at Queenstown. They were at first successful, having beaten the enemy with the bayonet; but not receiving the expected reinforcements, and their retreat



Constitution and Guerriere.

to the opposite shore being cut off, they were, after a long and obstinate engagement, compelled to surrender.

The disappointment arising from the failure of these military enterprises, was amply counterbalanced by the glorious success of the American flag on the ocean, the previous, and, as it had seemed, the peculiar theatre of British triumph. On the 20th of August, 1812, the United States frigate Constitution, under the command of Captain Hull, a nephew of the general who had inflicted so deep a disgrace upon his country's flag, fell in with the British frigate Guerriere, of about equal force. The latter advanced to the conflict, confident in the reputation of the British arms, and anticipating an easy triumph over her opponent; but in the space of thirty minutes, the well-directed fire of the Constitution placed her in a sinking state, and she was forced to



Commodore Jones.

surrender, with the loss of one hundred men, killed, wounded, and missing. On board the *Constitution* seven only were killed, and seven wounded.

This brilliant exploit was followed by another of a similar nature. On the 25th of October, the frigate *United States*, commanded by Captain Decatur, engaged the British frigate *Macedonian*, and, after an action of an hour and a half, the duration of which was prolonged by the manœuvres of the enemy, compelled her to surrender, with the loss of upwards of a hundred killed and wounded. The *Macedonian* was sent into the United States, and added to the navy.

In November, the British sloop of war *Frolic* was captured, after a severe engagement with the American sloop of war *Wasp*, of inferior force, commanded by Captain (now Commodore) Jones. About thirty were killed and fifty wounded, on board the *Frolic*. The American loss was four killed and five wounded.

Before the close of this year, another brilliant victory added lustre to the American arms. The frigate *Con-*



Captain James Lawrence.

stitution, commanded by Commodore Bainbridge, being off the coast of Brazil, encountered the British frigate *Java*, carrying an equal number of guns, but having a larger number of men, there being on board, besides her original crew of four hundred men, one hundred supernumeraries, and several military passengers. A warm action ensued, which continued about an hour, when the fire of the *Constitution* reduced her opponent to an unmanageable wreck, and she struck her colours. Her loss was very great, sixty having been killed, and one hundred and twenty wounded. Of the crew of the *Constitution*, nine were killed and twenty-five wounded. It being found impossible to bring the prize into port, she was destroyed by the captors.

Not long afterwards, the sloop of war *Hornet*, commanded by Captain James Lawrence, fell in with and captured the British sloop of war *Peacock*, of superior force, after an action of only fifteen minutes.

Feats of naval prowess were not confined to the public ships of the United States. Privateers sailed from

every port, and exhibited the same superiority that was displayed by the regular navy. Before the meeting of Congress, in November, two hundred and fifty vessels had been captured from the enemy, and more than three thousand prisoners taken; upwards of fifty of those vessels being armed, carrying nearly six hundred guns.

The good effects of these splendid triumphs in promoting confidence, soon extended beyond the element on which they had been gained. A spirit was thereby roused on land, which produced a happy contrast to the previous languor of despondence. In the western and in the southern states, volunteer corps were everywhere forming, and tendering their services to march to any quarter of the Union. Great alacrity was shown in the western section of Pennsylvania and Virginia; but this patriotic zeal was the most conspicuously observable in Kentucky, Ohio, and Tennessee. It was expected that, before October, everything would be ready for a formidable invasion of Canada; but, from an extraordinary cause, there was experienced considerable disappointment.

Unfriendly to the war, particularly to its being made offensive, the governors of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Connecticut, refused to allow the militia of those states to march under the requisition of the President. They declared that they were themselves the proper judges, in accordance with the federal constitution, of the necessity which might require them in the field. Their refusal delayed for a short time the intended movements, but did not depress the spirits of the troops collected.

Nearly 10,000 men were at length embodied on the northern lines; and skilful sea-officers were employed in forming a navy on Lakes Erie, Ontario, and Champlain. The indefatigable exertions of Commodore Chauncey in creating a fleet upon those inland seas, produced most beneficial results. During the revolutionary war, the operations on the northern lakes extended not beyond the contests of a few temporary gun-boats, or inconsiderable schooners; but preparations were now

making, from which arose a sublimity of combat not less interesting than on the extended waves of the Atlantic ocean.

When Congress re-assembled in November, the glory of the seamen was contrasted with the disgraces of the army, as a fresh argument against the measures of the existing government. Party spirit rose to an alarming height; and, as usual, the members of the state legislatures were not less under its influence in their public than in their private relations. Mutual charges were made, of French control, and improper submission to the outrages of Britain. Some degree of justice was apparent on the pacific side; yet the advocates of war were able to produce arguments equally meriting attention.

A proposal for an armistice, made by the governor of Canada, had been thought inadmissible; and a similar offer, by a British admiral, was on the same principle rejected: but, on the other hand, the American minister at London had made a pacific overture, which proved abortive; and a mediation offered to the British government, by the emperor of Russia, was equally ineffectual.

The military operations of the year 1813 were productive of alternate successes and reverses. After the capture of Hull's army, the government immediately called out detachments of the militia and volunteers from Kentucky, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and placed the whole under the command of General William Henry Harrison. The arrangements of this officer were well concerted to obtain the object proposed in the first instance, the recovery of Detroit.

In pursuance of his plans, General Winchester was sent forward to the rapids of Miami, with about eight hundred men, with directions to commence the building of huts. Early in January, he arrived at this post, and formed a fortified camp; but, hearing of an intended attack upon Frenchtown, at the River Raisin, by the Indians, he moved forward to that place.

Here, on the morning of the 22d of January, he was suddenly attacked by a large force of British and Indians, commanded by Colonel Proctor. The Americans were



Battle of Frenchtown.

surprised and surrounded; and, though they fought with coolness and courage, it was soon perceived to be in vain to contend with the enemy's superior numbers. To preserve those who had not already fallen, their general surrendered them prisoners of war, to the number of about five hundred. After the battle, the British commenced their march to Malden, leaving the unfortunate prisoners in charge of the Indians, with whose ferocious disposition they were well acquainted. A most barbarous massacre ensued, and of those who escaped the tomahawk or the flames, many were sold into captivity. No effort was made by the British to save these unfortunate soldiers, although Colonel Proctor had expressly engaged that they should be protected.

On the Ontario frontiers, the American arms enjoyed a brief advantage. York, the seat of government of Upper Canada, being abandoned by the enemy, was taken possession of by troops under the command of General-Dearborn, on the 27th of April. When the

Americans were within a short distance of the British works, after they had driven before them the best of the enemy's troops with the bayonet, an explosion took place, from a magazine previously prepared for the purpose, by which about one hundred were killed, among whom was the commander of the detachment, General Pike, an officer of distinguished military talents and bravery, whose loss was deeply lamented. His troops, undismayed by the fall of their leader, or the new species of enemy they had to contend with, gave loud cheers, and pushed forward to avenge his death. Having destroyed or removed most of the public stores, the army evacuated York.

On the 27th of May, a detachment proceeded to attack Fort George, which surrendered, after a sharp contest, in which a superior force of British regulars were beaten by the American advance. During the absence of General Dearborn, with the troops from Sackett's Harbour, an attempt was made upon that post by a formidable force under Sir George Prevost. They were received, however, with so much coolness and good conduct, by General Brown, with a small body of militia, volunteers, seamen, and regulars, hastily collected, that they betook themselves to flight, leaving behind them their wounded and prisoners.

At the Beaver Dams, near Fort George, a detachment of Americans, under the command of Generals Chandler and Winder, were surprised at night by a British party, and both the generals ingloriously captured.

On the borders of Lake Erie, the campaign opened with an attack, by the British, upon Fort Sandusky, in which they were repulsed with loss, by the gallant commander, Major Croghan.

After the defeat and capture of General Winchester, General Harrison concentrated his forces at the Rapids, where he erected a fort; which, in honour of the governor of Ohio, received the name of Fort Meigs. The allied forces advanced to this place, and commenced a siege, in May, 1813. They were unsuccessful. Notwith-



Commodore Perry.

standing the repulse of a body of Kentuckians, who, descending the river to the relief of the fort, were defeated by the enemy, the siege was raised without any great loss having been incurred by either party.

In the mean time, great exertions had been making to gain the command on Lake Erie. The American squadron, commanded by Commodore Perry, consisted of nine vessels, carrying fifty-six guns; the British of six vessels, with sixty-nine guns. On the morning of the 10th of September, the two squadrons encountered each other. The action was long and well contested, and, at one period, the principal American vessel had struck her colours. A bold and unusual manœuvre of the American commander, however, decided the fortune of the day. After an action of three hours, the whole British squadron surrendered, not a single vessel escaping. This glorious victory relieved the entire north-western frontier from the presence of the enemy.

General Harrison hastened to take advantage of the facilities it afforded. He embarked his main army on

board of the American squadron, and, landing on the Canadian shore, immediately marched in pursuit of the enemy. Near the river Thames, an action was fought, on the 5th of October, which terminated in the total defeat and dispersion of the British army. Six hundred prisoners, principally regular troops, and several pieces of cannon, were taken. With this action ended the important occurrences of the war on the north-western frontier.

During the early part of the war, the Atlantic frontier enjoyed comparative peace. In the spring of 1813, a series of devastating hostilities began on the shores of the Chesapeake, which reflected no honour on the British arms. The chief actor in these scenes was Admiral Cockburn, whose exploits will long be remembered in that quarter.

After plundering farm-houses and rifling churches, the enemy's troops were employed on a bolder scale. With the hope of obtaining possession of Norfolk, an attack was made on Craney Island, which, fortunately, ended in the total defeat of the invaders. The small town of Hampton was, however, taken and given up to violation and plunder. During the remainder of this year, the British in the Chesapeake were chiefly employed in threatening Washington and Baltimore. Admiral Cockburn pursued, on the shores of the Carolinas, the same system of pillage and devastation that he had previously practised in the Chesapeake.

On the ocean, the American frigate *Chesapeake* was, in consequence of the unfortunate death of her commander, and the disabled state of most of the officers, captured by the British frigate *Shannon*, of somewhat superior force and equipment; and the sloop of war *Argus* was taken by the British ship *Pelican*, of superior force: but, on the other hand, the British sloop of war *Peacock*, of twenty guns, was taken by the *Hornet*, of eighteen; and the *Boxer*, of sixteen guns, was taken by the American brig *Enterprise*, of similar force.

In the latter part of this year, a formidable expedition was fitted out for an attempt on Montreal, which, after

proceeding a short distance down the river St. Lawrence, and having encountered without much success a body of the enemy, found the obstacles greater than were anticipated, and abandoned the attempt. The army then went into winter quarters.

On the 30th of August, 1813, the Indians of Florida attacked Fort Mimms, and, after a desperate conflict with the garrison, succeeded in setting the place on fire. A dreadful carnage ensued; and only seventeen, out of the whole number of three hundred men, women, and children, escaped to carry the dreadful intelligence to the neighbouring settlements. In order to chastise these Indians for this and other unprovoked attacks on the white settlers, General Jackson was despatched with an army of 3,500 men.

A detachment of this army, on the 2d of November, fell in with a large body of Indians at Tallushatchee, which, after a desperate and obstinate resistance, was at length overcome, with the loss of one hundred and eighty-six men. Of the detachment only five were killed and forty wounded.

On the 9th of December, General Jackson succeeded in relieving the fortress of Talladega, which was then closely besieged by the Indians. The enemy were totally defeated. From this time Jackson gained victory after victory over the Indians; until at last, on the 27th of March, 1814, the spirit of the Creeks was entirely broken, and that unfortunate nation was totally overthrown and subjected to the whites, by the battle of Tohopeka. Tohopeka was a strongly fortified Indian fortress at the Horse-shoe Bend, on the Tallapoosa River, and at the time of attack was garrisoned by one thousand men, who were aware of the approaching danger, and made every preparation in their power to meet it.

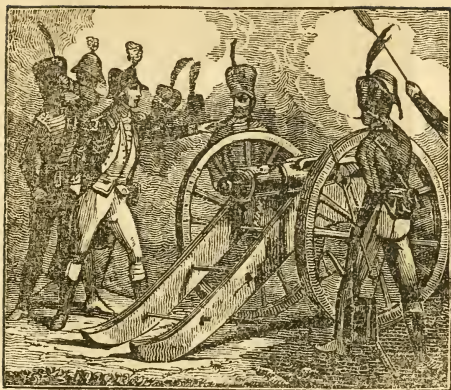
When General Jackson arrived in front of their breastwork, his troops advanced with unexampled gallantry, and were received with the greatest coolness. A most destructive contest was maintained at the port holes, until Major Montgomery, springing to the wall, called to his company to follow him. He was immedi-

ately killed, but his followers unrestrained by his fall, scaled the ramparts, and the remainder of the army following their example, soon succeeded in driving the enemy into the brush. The Indians refusing to surrender, the brush was set on fire, and soon being exposed to the view of their enemies, their numbers were materially thinned. Darkness put a stop to the slaughter. Soon after this a treaty of peace was concluded with the Indians at the Hickory Ground.

Early in the spring of 1814, General Wilkinson made another incursion into Canada, which ended unsuccessfully. He was soon afterwards superseded in the command, which was given to General Izard.

On the Niagara frontier, events occurred which retrieved the character of the American arms. Great pains had been taken to improve the discipline of the troops, and prepare them to encounter the veteran soldiers of the enemy. The command was assigned to General Brown, who had distinguished himself at Sackett's Harbour. On the 2d of July, the troops crossed, and having captured Fort Erie, with its garrison, proceeded to attack the British position at Chippewa. The respective forces were about equal in numbers. On the 5th of July, a very obstinate and well-fought battle took place, which terminated in favour of the Americans, who carried all the British works by the bayonet, and finally converted their retreat into a disorderly flight.

Another still more warily contested battle occurred on the 25th of the same month. The enemy, having been reinforced, advanced towards the American position, and was attacked by General Scott, near the Falls of Niagara. After a great display of valour, the enemy, beaten by the bayonet, was forced to retreat with great loss. The American force, however, was so much weakened, that it fell back to Fort Erie. The British advanced to lay siege to the fort, but their operations proved unsuccessful. An attempt to carry it by assault was defeated with great slaughter, and in a sally upon the besieger's lines, the Americans gained great advantages.



Capture of Fort Erie.

On the northern frontier, the arms of the republic obtained a glorious triumph. On the 1st of September, the British general, Prevost, with 14,000 men, advanced to the attack of Plattsburg, which was the principal depot for the northern army and the flotilla on Lake Champlain. The American militia in the town were commanded by General Macomb. They made every exertion in their power to retard the approach of the enemy, but the great inferiority of their numbers prevented them from holding the British long in check. The enemy entered the town on the 6th, and the Americans retired across the Saranac, tearing up the bridges in their rear.

The American squadron, under Commodore McDonough, was attacked, on the 11th, by the British fleet, and a hard fought action immediately commenced. It was continued for upwards of two hours, when the British flag-ship struck her colours. Many of the British ships were sunk, the remainder surrendered, and at the



Commodore McDonough.

close of the action there was not a mast standing in either squadron fit to carry a sail.

This action was witnessed by both armies on the shore, as well as by the people of Plattsburg, and when the colours were struck, the shores resounded with the cheers of the Americans. When the naval engagement commenced, the British, from their works on shore, opened a heavy fire of shot, shells, and rockets, upon the American lines on the other side of the little river Saranac. They made three several attempts to cross the river, but were as often repulsed, with great slaughter. During the night, the whole army fled with precipitation, before 4,000 Americans, leaving their sick and wounded, entrenching tools, and provisions, behind them.

During this year the British government availed itself of its powerful force to pillage and lay waste the Atlantic frontier. In the month of August, a body of about four thousand five hundred men was landed near Washington, and, on the 24th, an engagement took

place at Bladensburg, which ended in the retreat of the Americans. In this engagement, General Winder, the American commander, displayed a signal deficiency of military foresight and resource.

The British, under General Ross, advanced to Washington, and took possession of that place. After destroying the capitol, and other public buildings, they retired without molestation.

The disgrace arising from this event, was, in some measure, retrieved soon after by the able defence of Baltimore. When the British troops landed in September, to attack that city, they were met by the inhabitants at the water's edge, at North Point, and an engagement ensued, in which General Ross was mortally wounded. This reception, together with the firmness displayed by the defenders of Fort McHenry, under Major Armistead, who successfully withstood a furious bombardment, by the British fleet, for twenty-five hours, finally compelled the assailants to withdraw.

On the ocean, the reputation of the American flag still continued to be maintained. The frigate *President*, was, however, captured by a squadron of the enemy; and the *Essex*, by two vessels of superior force, after a most desperate engagement, and great slaughter; but the capture of the *Epervier*, the *Avon*, the *Reindeer*, the *Cyane*, the *Levant*, and the *Penguin*, proved that, in actions between vessels of equal force, the Americans were uniformly successful.

In the beginning of the year, a British flag of truce had arrived at Annapolis, with despatches for the American government, announcing the expulsion of Napoleon's armies from Spain, his signal defeat about the same period at Leipsic, and that, notwithstanding the rejection of the Russian mediation, the Prince-Regent of England was willing to enter upon direct negotiations of peace. The President having frankly acceded to the proposal, it was agreed that commissioners should assemble at Ghent.

Henry Clay and Jonathan Russel were appointed, on the part of the United States, to proceed to Europe, and

with John Quincy Adams, James A. Bayard, and Albert Gallatin—diplomats already there—to commence the pleasing business of conciliation.

It required the brilliant victory on Lake Champlain, and the equally splendid defence of Plattsburg, on the 11th of September, to remove the unfavorable impression made on these negotiations by the unfortunate surrender of the capital to the British army. But it might reasonably have been supposed that the war would, before this period, have ceased. Sufficient evidence had been offered to the enemy that no serious impression could be made upon the United States. The pacification of Europe had withdrawn the immediate causes of dispute, and the American commissioners had been instructed to allow the subject of impressment to remain unsettled. But the English government, not equally desirous of peace, proposed, most insultingly, a formal relinquishment of this ground of controversy by the United States, a surrender of a large portion of American territory, and the total abandonment of the coast along the lakes.

Early in September it became known that the enemy were preparing to make a formidable invasion upon Louisiana. The majority of the planters there, at least, of French extraction, had felt little interest in the war; the militia, therefore, were scarcely organized, instead of being disciplined and armed. But the chief safety of the inhabitants was in the nature of their country. It was exceedingly difficult of access by sea. In front was a shallow coast, and the principal entrance was a river; which, after crossing the bar, is narrow, deep, and rapid, and of a course so winding as to render it easily susceptible of being fortified. On the west are impassable swamps; and on the east the low, marshy coast can be approached only through a shallow lake.

Gun-boats, the most appropriate means of annoyance, had, notwithstanding, been neglected. As regarded men, arms, and military works, Louisiana was in a most defenceless situation. Happily for New Orleans, the commander of the district, General Jackson, arrived there on the 2d of December, from Mobile; to which

place he had returned after his capture of Pensacola, and his war with the Creek Indians. His presence was instantly felt in the confidence which it inspired, and in the unanimity with which the people seconded his prompt arrangements.

Three days had not elapsed after the arrival of General Jackson, when intelligence was received that the British fleet, consisting of at least sixty sail, was off the coast.

Guided by some traitors, the van of the invading army, on the 22d of December, was enabled to penetrate the country through a secret passage, called the Bayou Bienvenu, and for a moment to surprise the American guard; but the assailants were quickly repulsed, and Jackson lost no time in fortifying his post for the protection of the city. This was effected by a simple breast-work, from the Mississippi to the swamp, with a wet ditch in front; cotton bales of a square form being used as the cheeks of the embrasures. Meanwhile the British commander-in-chief, having landed the main body of his army, on the 28th of December, made an unsuccessful attempt to drive the American general from his entrenchments.

On the 1st of January, 1815, another unsuccessful attempt was made upon the American lines. On the 4th, General Jackson received an increase of 2,500 militia from Kentucky, under Generals Thomas and Adair; and on the 6th, the British were reinforced by the arrival of General Lambert. Their whole number was now 14,000. General Jackson commanded about 6,000.

The lines on the right bank of the river were entrusted to General Morgan, with the Louisiana, and detachments of New Orleans and Kentucky militia. The works on the left bank, covering the main body, were occupied by General Jackson himself, with the Tennessee forces, under Generals Coffee and Carrol; also a part of the Kentucky and New Orleans militia; the 7th and 44th regiments of United States infantry, with a corps of active sailors and marines.

Early on the morning of the 8th of January, the Bri-

tish columns moved forward simultaneously against the right and left of the American batteries. The American artillery opened a tremendous fire at the distance of 900 yards, and mowed them down with terrible slaughter: at length they came within reach of the American small arms, when there was exhibited on the side of the assailants, rather an extensive scene of carnage, than a battle in which one party was enabled to return with something like an equivalent effect, the shot poured against them by the other. The columns broke and retreated in some confusion. Twice were they rallied by their officers, and they returned the third time to the charge. The efforts of the British officers succeeded only in leading their veteran soldiers to destruction. The men shrunk from a contest in which they saw nothing but immediate slaughter. The columns finally broke and retreated in confusion. The loss of the British on this memorable day was seven hundred killed, fourteen hundred wounded, and five hundred captured. That of the Americans on the left bank of the Mississippi, was no more than six killed and nine wounded; on both banks it was thirteen killed, thirty-nine wounded, and nineteen missing. The invaders had to regret the death of many experienced and gallant officers. General Packenham, their commander-in-chief, was killed while rallying his troops to the second charge, and General Gibbs, his successor in the command, fell mortally wounded in the third charge.

The defeat of the British before Plattsburg having given a new turn to the negotiation then pending at Ghent, a treaty of peace was signed at that place, on the 24th of December, 1814, ratified by the Prince Regent of England on the 28th, and by the President of the United States, with the approbation of the Senate, on the 17th of February, 1815.

Both governments agreed to restore their respective conquests, to appoint commissioners for settling disputed boundaries, and pledged themselves to use their utmost endeavours towards accomplishing the entire abolition of the slave trade; but no allusion was made to the cause of the war.

CHAPTER XVII.

The United States since the War of 1812.

IMMEDIATELY after the ratification of peace with England, the government resolved to chastise the insolence of Algiers, which had taken advantage of the English war to prey on American commerce. A squadron was accordingly despatched, under Commodore Decatur; who, after capturing a frigate and a sloop of war, compelled the Dey to sign a treaty, renouncing, for ever, the practice of holding American prisoners in slavery.

In 1816, the term of office, to which Mr. Madison was elected, being about to expire, James Monroe was elected to succeed him, and entered on the duties of his office on the 4th day of March, 1817.

During his administration, the Seminoles, and other Florida Indians, again commenced hostilities. Instigated by the English, and unrestrained by the Spanish authorities of Florida, they murdered the unprotected, not even sparing the women or children. Generals Gaines and Jackson were sent against them, who soon succeeded in capturing two chiefs, the principal instigators of the war, and two British emissaries. The Indians and one of the Englishmen, after a trial by a court martial, were hung; the other Englishman was shot. This put a stop to any further aggressions on the part of the Indians. The Spanish authorities of Pensacola having aided the Indians in their hostilities, Jackson entered the town, took Fort Barrancas, near it, shipped the Spaniards to Havanna, and took formal possession of West Florida. In February 1819, a treaty was made with Spain, and ratified by the king in 1821, by which the Floridas, both East and West, were ceded to the United States.

In 1824, a treaty was made with Russia, fixing the north-west boundary of the territories of the two countries at the line of fifty-four degrees and forty minutes

of north latitude ; and another with England for the suppression of the African slave trade. This year was further distinguished by the visit of La Fayette to America. He arrived at New York on the 13th of August, and visited, during the ensuing twelve months, all the states of the Union. In this journey of upwards of five thousand miles, he was everywhere received with extraordinary marks of respect and attention, such as it became a great nation to show to one who was, in a great measure, instrumental in raising it to a high rank among the nations of the earth. Congress being in session when he arrived at Washington, voted him the sum of two hundred thousand dollars, and a township of land, six miles square. He left this country on the 7th of September, 1825, in a new American frigate, the *Brandywine*, fitted out for his accommodation, in which he sailed to France.

In 1824, in consequence of four candidates being proposed for the office of president, no one of them received a majority of the whole number of electoral votes, and the choice devolved on the House of Representatives. They chose John Quincy Adams, who entered on the discharge of the duties of his office on the 4th of March, 1825.

In the first two years of his administration, treaties were concluded with the Creeks, the Kansas, and the Osages, by which these tribes ceded all their lands, within the boundaries of Georgia, Missouri, and Arkansas, to the United States, receiving in exchange for them the same quantity of land west of the Mississippi, or their full value in money.

On the 4th of July, 1826, just half a century after the Declaration of Independence, two of the ex-presidents of the United States, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, died at their residences, the one at Quincy, and the other at Monticello.

In 1828, a Tariff Bill was enacted by Congress, which produced the most violent commotion in the Southern states, and threatened, for a time, the dissolution of the Union.

At the election, in the autumn of 1828, General Andrew Jackson of Tennessee, was chosen to succeed Mr. Adams. He was inaugurated in the following spring; John C. Calhoun at the same time taking his seat as Vice President.

In 1832, the Tariff of 1828 was modified somewhat, by lowering the duties on some articles; but this was far from meeting the wishes of the South. A convention in the state of South Carolina, even went so far as to declare both these acts null and void, and not binding on citizens of that state; and to threaten that if the United States should attempt to enforce them, the Union should be dissolved, and a convention called to adopt a form of government for South Carolina, as an independent nation. The legislature of that state, soon after passed acts authorizing the governor to provide the means to repel force by force. Jackson met this warlike disposition of the South bravely, and in a proclamation, issued in December, argued the matter with them, and declared that he should not hesitate to bring them back to their duty, by force, if force was necessary. These difficulties were finally overcome, by the introduction and passage of the Compromise Bill in 1833.

In 1832, a war broke out with the savages on the north-western frontier of the United States, and General Atkinson was despatched by the United States government to compel them to submission. On the 1st of August, 1833, an action took place at the Bad Axe River, in which the Indians were defeated. Another action soon after took place, in which the Indians fought with desperation, maintaining a very unequal contest for three hours, when half of their number being killed, the remainder saved themselves by flight; Black Hawk, their chief, flying with them. He was, however, soon after taken, and kept as a hostage until treaties were made with the Sacs, the Foxes, and the Winnebagoes, when he was liberated, and retired to his own town on the Mississippi.

A bill having passed both houses of Congress for the re-chartering of the United States Bank, was vetoed by



Black Hawk.

the President, and in 1833, the government deposits were withdrawn from that institution, and placed in local banks.

In 1834, the French Chamber of Deputies refused to indemnify the United States for losses sustained by them, in consequence of the Berlin and Milan decrees; but the President taking a warlike attitude, the money was ordered to be paid. During the year 1835, the whole debt of the United States was paid off.

In 1835, a war broke out between the United States and the Seminole Indians of Florida; and in December, Major Dade was sent against the Indians with two companies of the United States army. On the 23d of that month, he was suddenly attacked by a large body of In-

dians, and himself, with his whole command, were killed, with the exception of three men, who escaped by feigning death until the enemy retired, when they made the best of their way to the nearest settlement. This war was continued by skirmishes during the year 1836. In March, Osceola, the war-chief, demanded a parley, but it was broken up without concluding anything to the satisfaction of either party. During the winter of 1836, Congress recognised the independence of Texas.

In 1836, Martin Van Buren of New York, was elected to succeed General Jackson; he was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1837.

During his administration the effects resulting from Jackson's veto of the Bank Bill were felt throughout the country. The other banks, in consequence of the run that was made upon them, found it necessary to stop specie payments. Distress spread like a pestilence through every portion of society; all business was at a stand, and nothing but ruin was anticipated. This evil was mitigated in some measure, by the passage of a bill by Congress authorizing the issue of treasury notes.

In December, 1836, the Canadian rebellion broke out, and an American steamboat was taken, by order of the commander of the Canadian militia, set on fire, and then suffered to drift, in flames, down the Falls of Niagara. Notwithstanding the excitement produced by this affair, the President and Congress succeeded in their endeavors to preserve the neutrality of the United States. The affair of the steamboat was soon after settled between the secretary of state and Mr. Fox, the British minister, at Washington.

In 1838, the banks generally, throughout the United States, resumed specie payments, credit revived, and the prospects of trade, towards the end of the year, were encouraging. On the 25th of April a convention was concluded at Washington, for fixing the boundaries of the United States and Texas. Treaties were also, during this year, concluded with the Peru Bolivian confederation, and with the king of Greece.

The boundary between the state of Maine and Lower

Canada being undefined, led to frequent collisions between the governments of the two countries. The dispute was taken up by the secretary of state and the British minister, and finally, commissioners were appointed, in 1839, by both governments, to explore and survey the debated territory, in anticipation of the final settlement of the north-eastern boundary. During this year, treaties of commerce were made with the king of Sardinia, and the king of the Netherlands. The census of 1840, showed the population to be seventeen millions, having doubled in twenty-three years.

In the fall of 1840, the election for president again took place, Martin Van Buren and General William Henry Harrison being the candidates. General Harrison, of Ohio, was chosen by a very large majority. At the same time, John Tyler, of Virginia, was elected to the vice presidency. They were inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1841.

The official acts of Harrison were very few. In his inaugural address, he explained to Congress his views of the principles of American government, and expressed to them his determination to carry his just views into effect. This, however, he was destined never to have the opportunity to put into practice; for, on the morning of the 4th of April, just one month after his inauguration, and before he had sent a single message to Congress, he paid the debt of nature, and expired at Washington, in the sixty-ninth year of his age. He was buried on the 7th, with all the ceremony and honours due to his high rank and exalted character. His death spread the greatest grief throughout every part of the Union; a national fast was proclaimed, and the attachment, confidence, and respect of the people, were testified by every appearance of public and heartfelt grief.

According to the constitution, John Tyler now became President of the United States, and Mr. Southard, who had been elected President of the Senate, *pro tempore*, became Vice President. The cabinet, chosen by General Harrison, was continued in office until the president twice laid his *veto* upon bills for the establish-

ment of a National Bank, when they all resigned, with the exception of Mr. Webster, the Secretary of State.

During the year 1841, Congress passed a law for the distribution of the proceeds of the public lands. The old question, respecting the "right of search," claimed by Great Britain, was again brought up in Congress. The United States protested against the practice, and it soon became, again, a subject of complaint and negotiation between the two governments. A bill for the extension of the compromise act, and a new tariff bill, were both defeated by the *veto* of the president. In September, however, a modified tariff bill was passed, to which he consented.

In April, 1842, Lord Ashburton arrived in the United States, with full powers, as a special ambassador, from Great Britain, to effect a pacific adjustment of all differences between the two governments. He was met by Mr. Webster, on the part of the United States, and a treaty was concluded between them, fixing the north-eastern boundary line by a minute geographical description of the country through which it passes. It also stipulated that both powers should use their utmost endeavors to put an end to the African slave trade. This treaty was signed by the plenipotentiaries on the 9th, and ratified by the Senate on the 20th of August.

In the meantime, strenuous efforts were being made by a party in the Union to bring about the annexation of Texas. That large and fertile State had, until a recent period, been considered as a part of Mexico. No attempt was made to settle it by any European power for more than a century after the conquest of Cortes. In 1685, La Salle, a famous French adventurer, having been carried to the coast, built a fort and took possession of the territory in the name of France. But he was killed shortly afterwards, and his colony broken up. Ever afterwards, however, France claimed Texas as a part of Louisiana.

In the years 1690-2 some Spanish missions were founded along the coast. Among them was one upon

the site of the present town of San Antonio de Bexar. In 1763, Louisiana, including Texas, was ceded to Spain; but in 1800, France again got possession of the territory. This frequent change of masters raised questions of boundary, which were afterwards the source of much trouble and bloodshed.

The fertile plains of Texas soon became the home of a busy population. When Mexico began her struggle for independence, this gallant State took an active part in the contest, and contributed materially to the triumph of the patriots. Her sons were ever present in the fight; and their sufferings and sacrifices were worthy of that best of causes—national independence. During this contest, a large number of brave spirits from the United States came to Texas. They aided in achieving the brilliant victories of Goliad, Bexar, and Medina, and made themselves conspicuous wherever danger was to be encountered.

After Mexico had achieved her independence, emigrants from the United States flocked to Texas. At the head of these bold and hardy pioneers was Mr. Samuel Austin, after whom the present capital is named. In 1824, the territory was united to Coahuila, and both formed one State of the Mexican confederacy. After this, the population increased very rapidly. The Mexican government became alarmed, and to check immigration, adopted some measures restricting the privilege of foreign emigrants. The policy of the authorities then became extremely arbitrary, and the people were at length, in 1832, excited to revolt. During the movement, Colonel Bradburn, commandant of the military post of Anahuac, was driven from the country.

In August, 1833, Mr. Austin visited the city of Mexico, and presented a petition to the general government, asking the separation of Texas and Coahuila. The government delayed giving a decisive reply; and, at length, Mr. Austin, wearied out of patience, wrote to the Texans to assume the responsi-

bility of organizing a State government. For this bold counsel he was sent to prison. The Texans were thrown into a ferment. Anarchy seemed about to take the place of regular government. At length, Mr. Austin was released from imprisonment. About the time of his return home, intelligence was received of the adoption of the "Plan of Toluco," under the influence of General Santa Anna, substituting a strong central for the federal government. The free spirit of the Texans was now manifested. They refused their assent to a change in the government, denounced Santa Anna as a tyrant and usurper, and declared their determination to adhere to the constitution of 1824. A central, committee of safety was organized, Mr. Austin being chairman, and a thorough military organization was recommended. (Sept. 1835.)

Santa Anna took prompt measures to suppress the spirit of revolt. In September, General Cos, with a considerable army, marched to San Antonio de Bexar. From that place, he sent two hundred men to Gonzales to sieze some cannon. On the 2d of October, this detachment was attacked by one hundred and sixty-eight Texans and totally routed. Soon afterwards, Captain Collinsworth, with fifty men, followed up this success by capturing Goliad, with its artillery and stores.

The brave Texans now began to take the field under daring leaders. On the 20th of October, Austin, with three hundred men, took a position within five miles of San Antonio de Bexar, then in possession of the Mexicans. On the 27th, a detachment of this force, commanded by Colonel Bowie, defeated a large body of Mexicans. Bexar was besieged in due form, until the 5th of December, when the brave Milam, with three hundred men, assaulted the works. For six days afterwards the conflict was maintained with remarkable obstinacy. At the expiration of that time, General Cos agreed to capitulate. Thus terminated the first invasion of Texas by the Mexicans.

The gallant defenders of the soil were entitled to the warmest meed of praise.

Austin having been sent as commissioner to the United States, General Houston, a bold, active, and skillful leader, succeeded him as commander-in-chief of the Texan forces. The fiercest struggle was yet to come. On the first of February, 1836, General Santa Anna marched from Saltillo towards the Rio Grande with eight thousand men, and a large train of artillery and stores.

On the 23d he appeared before San Antonio de Bexar. The garrison consisted of only one hundred and fifty men, under the command of William B. Travis. These gallant men retired to the fortress of the Alamo, and called upon the government for reinforcements. None arrived to succor them. They were besieged by four thousand men, under the command of Santa Anna. But they were determined to perish rather than surrender, and for two weeks they sustained themselves against the efforts of the enemy, with a resolution almost unparalleled in the annals of war. On the 6th of March, the works were carried by assault, and the whole garrison, except a woman and a negro, butchered. These men were as gallant spirits as ever drew a weapon, and they died with the same noble resolution that conferred immortality upon the Greek Leonidas and his followers. The dead bodies were mutilated and burned. The loss of the Mexicans during this famous siege is variously estimated at from one thousand to fifteen hundred men.

On the 2d of March, a convention of Texan delegates published a declaration of independence. On the 17th a national republican constitution was adopted. David G. Burnet was chosen provisional President. This was the commencement of the national existence.

In the meantime, the Mexicans had committed a number of outrages, which awakened indignation in the United States as well as Texas. During the

siege of the Alamo, General Urrea, with a Mexican division, marching along the coast, captured two parties of Texans, under Colonel Johnson and Captain King. Johnson and a few others escaped. The rest were shot. Another party, commanded by Colonel Ward, was obliged to surrender. The garrison of Goliad, under Colonel Fannin, was surrounded and captured on promise of being treated as prisoners of war. But this party and Ward's detachment, numbering in all four hundred men, were summarily shot. These outrages only served to increase the exasperation of the Texans, and render them more determined than ever to achieve their independence.

Volunteers from the United States now arrived in considerable numbers. General Houston having eight hundred men under his command, determined to assume the offensive. On the 21st of April, he encountered Santa Anna with sixteen hundred men, at a ford of the San Jacinto. The battle commenced in the afternoon. The Texan cavalry charged furiously, shouting, "Remember the Alamo!" The onset was irresistible. In fifteen minutes the Mexicans were totally routed, and their camp captured. Six hundred and thirty of them were slain, two hundred and eight wounded, and seven hundred and thirty made prisoners. General Santa Anna, himself, was wounded and captured. The Texan loss was but eight killed and seventeen wounded. This was one of the most splendid achievements recorded in American history.

The victory was decisive. Santa Anna concluded an armistice with General Houston, by the terms of which the Mexican forces, then in Texas, were allowed to depart. Soon after, Santa Anna signed a secret treaty with President Burnet, recognizing the independence of Texas, and establishing the Rio Grande as a boundary.

Early in September, the new government of Texas went into operation. General Houston was elected President, and Mirabeau B. Lamar, Vice President.

The people expressed a desire to be admitted into the American Union, with which most of them were connected by birth and interest. A minister was appointed to negotiate at Washington for that purpose. On the 3d of March, 1837, the United States recognized the independence of Texas; but no action was taken upon the proposal for annexation.

In the meantime, the Mexican Congress had disavowed the treaty signed by Santa Anna, and that personage also disavowed it as soon as restored to liberty. Hostilities were then renewed. A system of harassing and destructive warfare was carried on upon the border. In expeditions against Mier and Santa Fe, the Texan parties were captured, marched into Mexico, and subjected to the most horrible cruelty. Among foreign nations, however, Texas was generally recognized as a sovereign nation, in spite of the obstinacy of the Mexican government in claiming the territory.

Annexation to the United States continued to be a cherished idea among the Texan people. Attempts were made from time to time to bring about the desired consummation. At length, on the 12th of April, 1844, a treaty of annexation was concluded by Mr. Calhoun, President Tyler's Secretary of State, and Messrs. Van Zandt and Henderson, on the part of Texas. On being submitted to the Senate by President Tyler, the treaty was rejected by a vote of 16 ayes to 35 noes.

Immediately after the rejection of the treaty, Senator Benton introduced a bill for the annexation of Texas, the consent of Mexico being a precedent condition, and made an able speech in its favor. No action of importance was taken upon this bill. The cause of annexation received additional strength by being approved by the national convention of the democratic party; and after the election in the fall of 1844, which resulted in the triumph of the democratic candidates, the matter was considered as nearly settled. On the 25th of January, 1845, joint resolu-

tions for annexing Texas to the United States passed the House of Representatives; and on the 1st of March, the same passed the Senate, and were approved by the President, Mr. Tyler.

Thus was this great act of annexation consummated. The credit of obtaining this splendid acquisition to the Union belongs to the administration of President Tyler, while the strenuous efforts of General Houston in the same direction cannot fail to receive their share of praise. Nor should we omit to notice in this connection the earnest and patriotic services of Anson Jones, the gentleman who filled the supreme executive office of the republic at the time of the annexation. Much of the success of this auspicious measure is due to his active co-operation with the government of the United States on this occasion. Texas now shone as one of the brightest stars in the constellation of the Union, and a brilliant career was opened for her to run. Her infancy had been that of a Hercules, so to speak, and her maturity could not but be glorious.





Battle of Resaca de la Palma.

CHAPTER XVIII.

War between the United States and Mexico.

THE annexation of Texas led to a war between the United States and Mexico. The latter refused to recognise the independence of Texas, and as soon as the act of annexation was consummated, her minister withdrew from Washington.

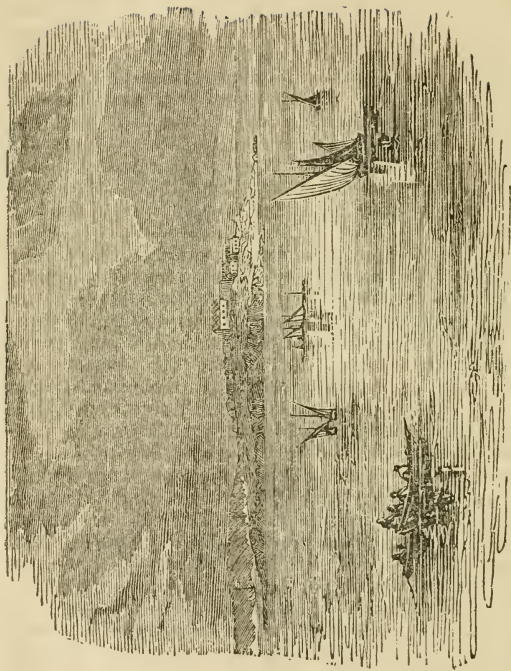
In the meantime, General Zachary Taylor, with a small but very efficient army of regular troops, had been ordered to take position, first at Corpus Christi, upon the Rio Neuces, and then upon the Rio Grande, which was claimed as the western boundary of Texas, and to repel all attempts of Mexican troops to invade the territory. General Taylor reached the Rio Grande on the 28th of March, 1846. General Ampudia, with a large force of Mexicans, was at Matamoras, on the opposite side of the river. Communications between

the two commanders were immediately opened, but with no satisfactory result. A fort was erected opposite Matamoras by General Taylor, and Point Isabel, at the mouth of the river, was seized. In the meantime, parties of Mexicans had crossed the river and waylaid and murdered several distinguished officers of General Taylor's army.

On the 10th of April, Colonel Cross, quarter-master-general of the army of occupation, was murdered by a band of outlaws, while riding from camp, to take his customary exercise. His body was not recovered until the 21st. Meanwhile, Lieutenant Porter and three others, who, with a small party, had been sent out to reconnoitre, were waylaid and killed.

On the 26th, General Taylor received information that the Mexicans were crossing the river, both above and below the fort. In order to be satisfied of the correctness of this report, he despatched Captain Ker with a small party, to the landing below, and Captain Thornton to that above. The former soon returned without seeing an enemy. Thornton's party fell into an ambush, was completely surrounded, and soon after separated into two portions. The captain's horse, being severely wounded, leaped the chaparral fence which enclosed him, and ran at full speed toward the American camp. Both, however, were captured, and taken into Matamoras. Meanwhile, the party commanded by Captain Hardee, after fighting with great bravery, was overpowered by numbers, and induced to surrender, on a promise of good treatment. Soon after these accidents, the Mexicans crossed the Rio Grande in large numbers, and spread themselves between General Taylor's camp and that of Major Monroe, thus cutting off the communication between them.

On ascertaining the danger of his main depot, General Taylor resolved on marching immediately to its relief. With the greater part of his army, he left his camp on the 1st of May, and arrived at Point



Point Isabel.

Isabel on the evening of the 2d, having met with no opposition from the Mexicans. A regiment of infantry, and two companies of artillery, were left at the river fort, under the command of Major Jacob Brown.

Intelligence of the hostile operations of the Mexicans having been transmitted to the seat of government, the facts were formally announced to Congress by a message of the President, on the 11th of May, 1846. On the 13th, Congress passed an act declaring the existence of war between the two republics, empowering the President to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers, and appropriating ten millions of dollars to defray the expenses. Thus authorized, the Executive issued a proclamation, invoking the aid of the nation in carrying on the war.

Major Brown had been left in command of the fort opposite Matamoras, when General Taylor marched to Point Isabel. On the 3d of May, the Mexicans opened their batteries upon the fort. Their fire was returned with effect, but the bombardment continued. Major Brown was killed by the bursting of a shell, and the command devolved on Captain Hawkins. Six thousand Mexicans, under the command of General Arista, now crossed the Rio Grande and took up a position between Point Isabel and the fort. General Taylor determined to relieve the garrison if possible.

He marched for the fort, May 7. After advancing about seven miles, the army bivouacked on the open plain, and resumed its march on the following morning. At noon, the advance reached the watering-place of Palo Alto, near which the Mexican army was drawn up across the road, in order of battle. Here General Taylor halted, in order to afford his troops an opportunity to refresh themselves with cold water, preparatory to forming the line. The Mexican army was plainly visible across the prairie—their left composed of a heavy cavalry force, occupying the road, resting upon a

thicket of chaparral, while masses of infantry, greatly out-numbering the American forces, were on the right.

At two o'clock the Americans moved forward by heads of columns, their eighteen-pound battery following the road. At the same time Lieutenant Blake and another officer made a close and daring reconnoissance of the enemy's line, which resulted in the discovery of several batteries of artillery in the intervals of their infantry and cavalry. These guns soon opened upon the American line, and were answered by all General Taylor's artillery. As the Mexican fire did little execution, their cavalry endeavoured to pass round some neighbouring chaparral, in order to out-flank the American right; but this movement was defeated by the active exertions of Captain Walker's volunteers, aided by some artillery under Captain Ridgely. So violent was the cannonading on both sides, that the grass of the prairie was fired, the smoke from which hid the armies from each other, and caused a suspension of hostilities for nearly an hour. This interval gave opportunity to each general to form a new line of battle, so that when the atmosphere became clear the action was resumed with increased vigour. The slaughter among the dense masses of cavalry was very great; while, on the other hand, Major Ringgold, chief artillerist of the Americans, was mortally wounded, and several of the infantry killed. The firing continued with but little intermission until dark, when the Mexicans withdrew into the neighbouring chaparral. The whole engagement had been one of artillery; for, although the enemy's cavalry made several attempts upon the American flank, they were in no instance near enough to risk a charge; and the discharge of small arms towards the close of the action was of but short continuance and of little effect. The loss of the Americans was nine killed, and forty-six wounded and missing. The total force was nearly twenty-nine hundred; that of the Mexicans about six thousand.

Fall of Major Ringgold.



Both armies encamped for the night on or around the battle-field.

On the morning of the 9th, the Mexicans were discovered moving by their left flank so as to gain a new position on the road to Matamoras, and there again resist the advances of the Americans. General Taylor immediately prepared for battle, by ordering his supply train packed, and leaving with it four pieces of artillery, and sending his wounded to Point Isabel. Then halting his columns at the edge of the chaparral which extends several miles towards the Rio Grande, he threw forward some light troops and infantry, under Captain McCall, to reconnoitre the thickets, and report in case of meeting an enemy. The captain soon came upon small bodies of infantry posted in the chaparral, who immediately opened upon him with musketry; and, in endeavouring to advance, he found himself in front of a large portion of the Mexican army. This being reported to General Taylor, he ordered forward successive portions of his army, who, immediately closing with the Mexican forces, soon brought on a general engagement. The enemy being securely posted in almost impenetrable thickets, and having their batteries planted in a ravine which crossed and commanded the road, fought with an obstinacy rare among Mexican troops, and yielded their ground only when driven inch by inch with the bayonet. Their artillery continued to pour an incessant shower of grape and canister shot into the American ranks. As the result of the battle depended upon the possession of these guns, Captain May was ordered to charge the batteries with his squadron of dragoons, which he did in gallant style, sweeping the artillerists from their posts, and driving back the supporting infantry. Several of the cavalry were killed, while La Vega, a Mexican general, was taken prisoner. Soon after the eighth infantry arrived to May's assistance, and succeeded in securing the guns and driving the Mexicans from the left of the road. The enemy were finally repulsed

at every point; and, leaving their camp and baggage, they fled precipitately towards the river. Being hotly pursued, numbers were killed in the flight, and many more drowned in attempting to cross the Rio Grande. The approach of General Taylor's army was hailed by the garrison at little Fort Brown with the most enthusiastic applause, and the eighteen-pounders within the fort were opened upon the flying enemy. After providing for his wounded, General Taylor bivouacked near the river bank, within view of Matamoras and the garrison under Captain Hawkins.

The marching force of the Americans on this day was rather more than twenty-two hundred, but the number actually engaged in the battle appears to have been no greater than seventeen hundred. The Mexican force probably numbered six thousand men, as they had been reinforced during the night by bodies of infantry and cavalry. General Taylor's loss was thirty-nine killed, including three officers, and eighty-three wounded. The loss of the Mexicans in both battles is estimated by General Taylor at one thousand men.

On the 11th of May, an exchange of prisoners took place, and Captain Thornton and his party rejoined their comrades in arms. On the 18th of May, General Taylor crossed the Rio Grande and took possession of Matamoras, the Mexican army retiring upon his approach. The American general, though victorious, was not in a condition to advance into the interior of Mexico. He was compelled to wait for troops, supplies, and means of transportation. In the meantime, Captain M'Culloch, with a band of Texan rangers, seized the Mexican ports of Reynosa, Camargo, and Mier.

By the latter part of June, General Taylor's army had increased to nearly six thousand men, mostly volunteers. Supplies were still deficient.

It was not until the 5th of August, nearly three months after the battle of Resaca de la Palma, that General Taylor was able to take up his line of march



A Texan Ranger.

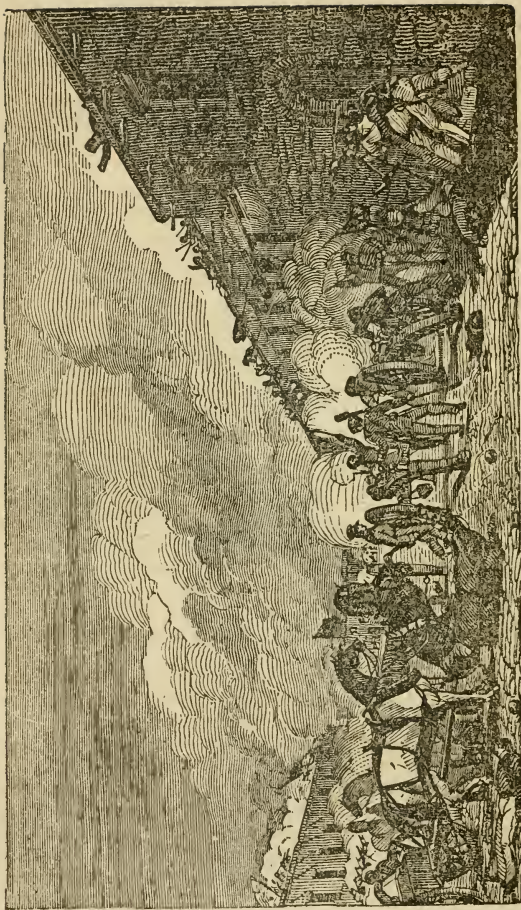
from Matamoras for Camargo. On arriving at that place, General Worth was detached to San Juan, while Captain Wall occupied Reynosa, and General Twiggs had been left in command of Matamoras. Towards the end of August, General Worth was ordered to advance to Seralvo, and there to await further orders. From this port he sent advices to General Taylor on the 5th of September, that Monterey had just been reinforced by the arrival of three thousand men under General Ampudia, thus increasing the garrison to eleven thousand. This information determined General Taylor to advance immediately and attack Monterey. He accordingly took up his

line of march towards Seralvo on the 7th, leaving General Patterson in command of all the forces stationed between Camargo and Matamoras.

Disencumbering his troops of all unnecessary baggage, and sending forward his supplies on pack-mules to Seralvo, Taylor now hastened eagerly on. On his arrival at Seralvo, instead of waiting for further reinforcements or fresh orders, before attacking so formidable a fort with so light a force, he pushed forward for Monterey with his main body, consisting of but little more than six thousand men.

The character and extent of the work the Americans had before them may be inferred from a short sketch of Monterey:—The town is seated in a beautiful valley, bosomed among lofty and imposing mountains on the north, east, and south, and open to a plain on the west, fortified with thick stone walls in the old Spanish fashion of another century, with all the apparatus of ditches, and lowering upon them with deep-mouthed cannon. From their elevated position the Americans could see in part what they had already learned from spies and deserters, that the flat-roofed stone houses of the city itself had been converted into fortifications. Every street was barricaded, and every house-top was bristling with musketry. On one side the Americans could see the Bishop's Palace, a strong fort well garrisoned; on the other, redoubts well manned; and in the rear of all, a river.

The attack on Monterey began on the 20th of September. The Americans were divided into two columns; one, under the command of General Taylor, designed to attack the front of the town, and the other, under General Worth, to attack the Bishop's Palace and the other strong works in that quarter. The siege lasted three days, and was characterized by the display of the most undaunted bravery on the part of the American soldiers, and the most consummate skill on the part of the commanding general. One by one the various posts, deemed impregnable,



Street Fight in Monterey.

fell into the hands of the besiegers, and they even attained strong positions in the city before the Mexican generals capitulated.

The loss of the Americans was twelve officers, and one hundred and eight men killed, and thirty-one officers and three hundred and thirty-seven wounded. The loss of the Mexicans is unknown.

By the terms of the capitulation, the Mexican forces were allowed to retain their arms, and were to retire, within seven days from the capitulation, beyond a line formed by the pass of the Riconada, the city of Linares, and San Fernando de Parras. The forces under General Taylor were not to advance beyond that line before the expiration of eight weeks, or until orders were received from the respective governments.

General Taylor now established his head-quarters at Monterey. General Worth occupied Saltillo, and General Wool took possession of Parras. The government of the United States did not approve of the armistice agreed upon by the commanders of the hostile armies; and ordered General Taylor to put an end to it. But no movement of importance could be made till some time after the expiration of the term.

In the meantime, General Paredes had been deposed at the Mexican capital, and the energetic Santa Anna had been raised to a military dictatorship. He soon raised an army of twenty thousand men, and advanced towards General Taylor as far as San Luis Potosi. After awaiting the arrival of this powerful army for some time, General Taylor determined to move forward and meet them on their own ground.

On the 30th of December, he received a requisition from General Scott, commander-in-chief of the army of the United States, for all the regular troops under his command. He was also recommended to act on the defensive. The general delivered a feeling address on parting with the flower of his army.

By February, 1847, the army at Monterey had

been increased to about six thousand men. General Taylor did not see proper to stand a siege at that strong post, and thus lay open the lower country to Santa Anna. He advanced to Agua Nueva, with the greater part of his force, and on receiving intelligence of the approach of the enemy, took up a strong position at the pass of Angostura, in front of the village of Buena Vista.

On the 23d of February, the advance of the Mexican forces came in sight, and Santa Anna, the commanding general, sent General Taylor a summons to surrender, which he, of course, declined, although Santa Anna informed him that he was surrounded by twenty thousand men. The Mexicans then opened a fire from a mortar, but without execution; and then made a demonstration on the left of the Americans, pouring a tremendous fire into their ranks. The skirmishing was kept up until dark, when General Taylor, leaving General Wool in command, returned to Saltillo. The troops bivouacked on the field.

Early on the morning of the 23d, the battle commenced by an attempt of the Mexicans to outflank the left of the Americans, where the Kentucky rifle men were posted. They maintained their position against a vastly superior force, and were overwhelmed and driven back, with the loss of their guns. The Mexicans then poured their masses of infantry and cavalry along the base of the mountain on the left, and were gaining the rear in great force, when General Taylor arrived on the field, and by his skilful and prompt measures, the fortune of the day was turned. After a bloody conflict, the Mexicans were driven back. Another body of them gained the rear of the Americans, and were there cut off from the main army. A device of Santa Anna, by which he secured time enough for them to rejoin him, was all that saved them from annihilation. A last and desperate attempt was made to force the Americans from their position; and the determined bravery of the Americans, and the vast number of Mexicans, made the

Charge of Mexican Lancers at Buena Vista.



conflict extremely obstinate and bloody. The splendid artillery of the Americans was served with such effect that whole ranks of the enemy were swept by it, and at length they fell back. Night put an end to the battle. The Americans sank down exhausted upon the field, but their untiring general made every preparation for an attack the next morning.

When the morning came, it was found Santa Anna had retreated, evidently satisfied with his previous efforts. No pursuit was attempted, it being considered enough to have maintained a position against such an army. The whole number of Americans engaged at Buena Vista was three hundred and thirty-four officers, and four thousand four hundred and twenty-five men, of which number only four hundred and fifty-three were regular troops. The strength of the Mexican army is set down at fifteen thousand infantry, and six thousand cavalry. The loss of the Americans was two hundred and sixty-seven killed, four hundred and fifty-six wounded, and twenty-three missing. The loss of the Mexicans is said, by Santa Anna, to have been at least fifteen hundred; more than five hundred of their killed were left upon the field of battle. The victory must be attributed, in great part, to the artillery of the American army, which saved the day at three different times; but the genius of the commanding general was conspicuous from the choice of position till the close of the battle, and to his coolness and intrepidity, resources and skill, which inspired confidence in the men, must be allowed a due commendation.

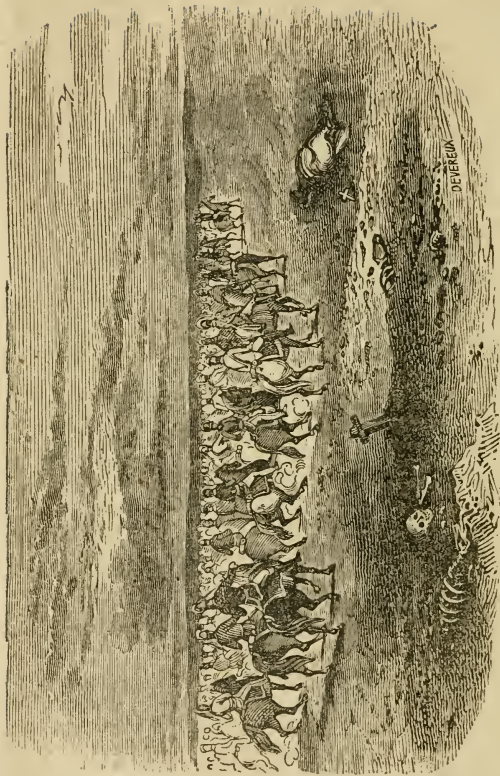
The subsequent movements of the army under General Taylor's command were of but little importance. Active hostilities were transferred to other portions of the Mexican territory. In the spring of 1847, General Taylor returned to the United States, leaving the army under the command of General Wool.

In prosecuting the war against Mexico, it was a part of the general plan of the United States govern-

ment to gain possession of New Mexico and Upper California. About twelve hundred men were raised in the western States, chiefly in Missouri, and placed under the command of General Stephen Kearney. He commenced his march for New Mexico early in the summer of 1846, and accomplished the immediate object of the expedition without meeting with any resistance. He took possession of Santa Fe, the capital, issued a proclamation, asserting the authority of the United States over the territory; had a code of laws prepared for its government; appointed a governor, and then began his march for California. On the borders of New Mexico, he received intelligence that Monterey and all the principal towns of California had already been captured by Commodore Stockton and Colonel Fremont; whereupon he retained but a hundred dragoons, and detached the remainder of his force under Colonel Doniphan, to join General Wool at Chihuahua.

Early in December, General Kearney reached the frontier settlement of Upper California. There he received information that the Californians had revolted and that a strong body of their cavalry was prepared to dispute his progress. On the 3d he met them at San Pasqual, and gained a complete victory. He then resumed his march, and arrived on the 12th at San Diego, on the Pacific coast.

On the 29th of December Commodore Stockton and General Kearney left San Diego, with about six hundred men. This force marched without any opposition, until the 8th of January, when they found the Californians, to the number of six hundred mounted men, with four pieces of artillery, under the command of General Flores, stationed upon the heights which commanded the crossing of the river San Gabriel. The necessary dispositions were soon made: the American commanders, with their whole force then forded the river, carried the heights, and drove the enemy from them, after an action of an hour and a half. The Americans encamped on the field till the



Doniphan's March.

next morning. On the next day, the 9th of January, the march was resumed. When the army reached the plains of the Mesa, they found the Californians again prepared to dispute their progress. The artillery opened upon them in front, and, after hovering near and skirmishing for about two hours, the Californians concentrated their forces and charged the left flank of the Americans; but they were quickly repulsed. They then retired, and on the following morning the victorious troops, entered the "City of the Angels," without opposition. These two battles decided the contest, and on the 13th of January, the enemy capitulated to Lieutenant-colonel Fremont, near San Fernando. Peace being restored, General Kearney was appointed to the post of civil and military governor of California, and he issued a proclamation absolving the Californians from their allegiance to Mexico.

In the meantime, Colonel Doniphan and his volunteers, marched towards Chihuahua, through a barren, unknown country.

On the 24th of December, they reached the Jornada lake, into which runs the Bracito river, more than twenty miles from the Paso del Norte, of the eastern mountain range. Here they were informed that the Mexicans, to the number of one thousand, were collected at the Pass, ready for an attack. The Americans numbered about six hundred, the remainder being sick. On the afternoon of the following day, (Christmas,) the enemy were seen approaching, and, when within eight hundred yards, extended themselves so as to cover the American flank. An officer approached, carrying a black flag, and after proclaiming no quarters, rejoined his column, which immediately charged at a rapid gallop. The conflict was but short—the Mexicans being defeated with the loss of thirty killed, and driven into the mountains. Eight were captured, six of whom subsequently died; and their single piece of cannon was also taken. The Americans had seven wounded. On the 27th, Doni-

phan entered the town of El Paso, without resistance, where he was reinforced by Major Clark's artillery.

On the 8th of January, 1847, the whole command (nine hundred and twenty-four men) left the Paso del Norte, and marched for Chihuahua. On the 28th they fought the great battle of Sacramento. This action, with the position itself, is thus described by Colonel Doniphan :

“ The Pass of the Sacramento is formed by a point of the mountains on our right, (their left,) extending into the valley or plain, so as to narrow the valley to about one and a half miles. On our left was a deep dry sandy channel of a creek, and between these points the plain rises to sixty feet abruptly. This rise is in the form of a crescent, the convex part being to the north of our forces. On the right, from the point of mountains, a narrow part of the plain extends north one and a half miles further than on the left. The main road passes down the centre of the valley, and across the crescent near the left or dry branch. The Sacramento rises in the mountains on the right, and the road falls on to it about one mile below the battle-field or intrenchment of the enemy. We ascertained that the enemy had one battery of four guns, two nine and six-pounders on the point of the mountain, (their left,) at a good elevation to sweep the plain ; and at a point where the mountain extended furthest into the plain. On our left (their right) they had another battery on an elevation commanding the road, and three intrenchments of two six-pounders, and on the brow of the crescent near the centre, another of six, and two four and six culverines, or rampart pieces mounted on carriages ; and on the crest of the hill, or ascent between the batteries, and the right and left, they had twenty-seven redoubts dug and thrown up, extending at short intervals across the whole ground. In these their infantry were placed, and were entirely protected. Their cavalry was drawn up in front of the redoubts, four

Doniphan's Charge at Sacramento.



DEVEREUX

deep, and in rear of the redoubts, two deep, so as to mask them as far as practicable. * *

"We now commenced the action by a brisk fire from our battery, and the enemy unmasked and commenced also. Our fire proved effective at this distance, killing fifteen men, wounding and disabling one of the enemy's guns. We had two men slightly wounded, and several horses and mules killed. The enemy then slowly retreated behind their works in some confusion, and we resumed our march in our former order, still diverging more to the right to avoid their battery on our left, and their strongest redoubts which were on the left near where the road passes. * * * The howitzers charged at speed, and were gallantly sustained by Captain Reid; but by some misunderstanding my order was not given to the other two companies, Parsons's and Hudson's. Captain Hudson, anticipating my order, charged in time to give ample support to the howitzers. Captain Parsons at the same moment came to me, and asked permission for his company to charge the redoubts immediately to the left of Captain Weightman, which he did very gallantly.

"The remainder of the two battalions of the first regiment were dismounted during the cavalry charge, and following rapidly on foot, and Major Clark advanced as rapidly as practicable, with the remainder of the battery, we charged their redoubts from right to left, with a brisk and deadly fire of riflemen, while Major Clark opened a rapid and well-directed fire on a column of cavalry, attempting to pass to our left so as to attack the wagons and our rear. The fire was so well directed as to force them to fall back, and our riflemen, with their cavalry and howitzers, cleared it after an obstinate resistance. Our forces advanced to the very brink of their redoubts, and attacked them with their sabres. When the redoubts were cleared, and the batteries in the centre and left were silenced, the main battery on our right still continued to pour in a constant and heavy fire,

as it had done during the heat of the engagement; but as the whole fate of the battle depended upon carrying the redoubts and centre battery, this one on the right remained unattacked, and the enemy had rallied there five hundred strong.

“Major Clark was directed to commence a heavy fire upon it, while Lieutenant-Colonels Mitchell and Jackson, commanding the first battalion, were ordered to remount and charge the battery on the left, while Major Gilpin was directed to pass the second battalion on foot, up the rough ascent of a mountain on the opposite side. The fire of our battery was so effective as to completely silence theirs, and the rapid advance of our column put them to flight over the mountains in great confusion.

“Thus ended the battle of Sacramento. The force of the enemy was twelve hundred cavalry from Durango and Chihuahua, three hundred artillerists, and fourteen hundred and twenty rancheros, badly armed with lassoes, lances, and machetoes, or knives, ten pieces of artillery, two nine, two eight, four six, and two four-pounders, and six culverines, or rampart pieces. * * * * Our force was nine hundred and twenty-four effective men; at least one hundred of whom were engaged in holding horses and driving teams. The loss of the enemy was his entire artillery, ten wagons, masses of beans and pinola, and other Mexican provisions, about three hundred killed, about the same number wounded, many of whom have since died, and forty prisoners. The field was literally covered with the dead and wounded, from our artillery and the unerring fire of our riflemen. Night put a stop to the carnage, the battle having commenced about three o'clock. Our loss was one killed, one mortally wounded, and seven so wounded as to recover without any loss of limbs.”

On the 1st of March Colonel Doniphan took possession of Chihuahua, where he remained three weeks. At the end of this time, having received orders from General Wool, he marched, April 25th, for Saltillo.

On the road, Captain Reid defeated about fifty Indians near El Passo, May 13th, capturing one thousand horses. On the 22d of May the command reached Wool's encampment, and on the 27th, that of General Taylor.

As the term of service of these gallant men had expired, they now commenced their return. Early in June they marched through Matamoras, and on the 16th, arrived at New Orleans.

The grand, decisive movement of the war was the expedition against Vera Cruz, and thence by the national road to the Mexican capital. General Winfield Scott was ordered to take command of the forces raised for this purpose. He reached the seat of war, January 1st, 1847, and by February the troops under his command numbered eleven thousand. The fleet, under Commodore Conner, was to co-operate.

Vera Cruz was very strongly fortified, and upon a bar in front of the city was the castle of San Juan de Ulloa, deemed almost impregnable. A reconnoissance of the coast was made by General Scott and Commodore Conner, and a portion of the beach west of the Isle of Sacrificios was selected for landing the troops. On the 9th of March, four thousand men were landed simultaneously. No resistance was met with, and the whole army was soon disembarked. From the 9th to the 22d, General Scott was employed in completing his lines around the city. He then summoned the city and castle to surrender, and upon the refusal of the governor, opened his batteries. For four days the bombardment and the cannonade were continued with destructive effect. Morales, the governor, then surrendered his authority into the hands of General Llandero, who immediately made overtures for a capitulation. Negotiations ended in the surrender of Vera Cruz and San Juan d'Ulloa to the American forces. During the progress of the siege, Colonel Harney with a small force of dragoons defeated a body of lancers, four times as numerous as

Colonel Harney defeating the Mexican Lancers.



his own command. The whole loss of the besiegers was twelve killed and sixty-five wounded.

Early in April, General Scott took up the line of march for the city of Mexico.

On the 17th of April, the army approached the celebrated pass of Sierra Gordo, always reputed to be impregnable, and which was now strongly fortified, with seven batteries so arranged as to protect each other. The position was held by General Santa Anna, a host of other Mexican generals, and the flower of the national army, sixteen thousand strong. They were expected to make a desperate stand against the eleven thousand Americans who were advancing towards the capital.

General Scott, having reconnoitred the enemy's position, instantly decided on his plan of operations. This plan, formed with the skill of a master, was executed with all the precision that the general could require. The attack began on the 18th of April, early in the morning. The troops were all in position before daylight. The whole line of the Mexican intrenchments and batteries were attacked in front and turned at the same time. The troops advanced amidst the most deadly and tremendous fire, without hesitation, and before two o'clock, P. M., the Mexicans were driven from their works and pursued with vigour. Their whole force was routed, and Santa Anna came near being captured. About three thousand men laid down their arms, with the usual proportion of field and company officers, besides five generals—a sixth was killed. According to General Scott's official despatch, the army was "embarrassed with the result of the victory." Nearly all the prisoners were released on parole, and the private effects captured were restored to their owners, and the small arms and some ammunition destroyed. The force of the Americans at Sierra Gordo was about eight thousand five hundred. Their loss was thirty-three officers and three hundred and ninety-eight men—total, four hundred and thirty-one, of whom sixty-three

were killed. The loss of the Mexicans in killed and wounded was never known, but during the battle it no doubt equalled that of their antagonists, and in the retreat was greatly augmented by the slaughter committed among the fugitives by Harney's dragoons.

On the same day that the victory of Sierra Gordo was achieved, the town of Tuspan was captured, with but slight resistance, by a portion of the gulf squadron. Guaymas was taken not long afterwards by the same force. On the following day Twiggs entered Jalapa, in pursuit of the flying enemy. On the same day, and the following, the Mexicans abandoned the strong post of La Hoya; and on the 22d, General Worth entered the strong town and castle of Perote. This fortress is one of the most formidable in Mexico. It contained fifty-four pieces of cannon, bronze and iron mortars, eleven thousand cannon-balls, fourteen thousand bombs, and five hundred muskets, all of which fell into the hands of the Americans.

On the 15th of May, General Worth approached the city of Puebla. He was met by a party of lancers, supposed to be led by Santa Anna, with whom a skirmish ensued, in the plains of Amasoca. After losing a few men, the enemy retreated, and were driven into the streets of Puebla, where they separated and escaped. Thus, in less than two months, General Scott and his army had captured three large cities, two castles, ten thousand men, more than seven hundred cannon, mostly new, and an immense quantity of shells, shot, and small arms.

About this time large bands of active and daring guerillas began to infest the road between Vera Cruz and Puebla. Father Jarauta, a bold priest, was the chief commander of these partisans. He seized upon every position where a good defence could be made, and whence it was easy to attack the wagon trains and small parties of American troops. No quarter was shown to the vanquished; a vast amount of plunder was taken, and for the Mexicans this was the most successful portion of the war. Captain Walker,

General Cadwallader, and General Pierce, who were in command of reinforcements for General Scott, and who escorted large and valuable trains, were successively attacked at the National Bridge. The guerillas were repulsed with loss in all these engagements and reinforcements reached General Scott; but the trains were plundered to a considerable extent.

General Scott remained at Puebla until early in August, when General Pierce arrived with two thousand five hundred men, the march for the capital was resumed. On the 11th of August, the army descended into the valley of Mexico. General Scott determined to avoid the strong works on the direct road to Mexico, by cutting a road round Lakes Chalco and Xochimilco. This was effected, and on the 18th General Worth, with the advanced division, reached San Augustin.

The post of Contreras was the first object of attack. It was strongly fortified, mounted twenty-two guns, and was garrisoned by seven thousand men. The capture of this strong place was entrusted to General Persifor Smith, with about three thousand men. On the 19th he gained the rear of the fortress, and at day-light on the morning of the 20th began the assault. Colonel Riley led the advanced corps. After a short and fierce struggle, the works were carried, and the garrison routed, with great slaughter.

The forces were now disposed for an attack on a still stronger position than Contreras. The whole of the remaining forces of Mexico, some twenty-seven thousand men, were now collected in on the flanks, or within supporting distance of the works, at the village of Churubusco. The principal defences were a fortified convent, and a strong field-work, (*tete de pont*,) with regular bastions and curtains, at the head of a bridge over which the road passes from San Antonio to the capital. The fortified convent was warmly attacked by Twiggs's division, and the *tete de pont* by Worth and Pillow. The latter was a formidable work; but was assaulted and carried by the bayonet,

Mexican Lancers at the National Bridge.



after a short but bloody struggle. Three field-pieces, one hundred and ninety-two prisoners, and a large quantity of ammunition fell into the hands of the victors. After the capture of the *tete de pont*, the whole strength of the two divisions was directed against the convent, the citadel of the strong line of defence at Churubusco. After a desperate conflict of two hours and a half, signals of surrender were thrown out on all sides, though not before some of the infantry had entered the work. The immediate results of this victory were seven field-pieces, some ammunition, one colour, three generals, and one thousand two hundred and sixty-one prisoners. While the attack was being made on the convent and *tete de pont*, General Shields, with two brigades, was detached to the left to turn the enemy's works, and prevent the escape of the garrison. The battle at that point was long, obstinate, and bloody; but in the end success crowned the determined bravery of Shields' troops, and the Mexicans were driven from the field, with a severe loss in killed and wounded, and three hundred and eighty of them were taken prisoners. This completed the rout of the Mexicans, and they were pursued to within a mile of the capital; a company of dragoons even charged them up to the nearest gate.

The results of the whole day's work on the 20th of August are thus summed up by General Scott:—

“It (the army) has, in a single day, in many battles as often defeated thirty-two thousand men, made about three thousand prisoners, including eight generals, (two of them ex-presidents,) and two hundred and five other officers; killed or wounded four thousand of all ranks, besides entire corps dispersed and dissolved; captured thirty-seven pieces of ordnance—more than trebling our siege train and field-batteries—with a large number of small arms, a full supply of ammunition of every kind. These great results have overwhelmed the enemy.” The loss of the Americans, in killed, wounded, and missing, was one

thousand and fifty-three. The whole force engaged during the day was only eight thousand five hundred men.

On the night of the 20th, a flag came from the Mexicans, asking for an armistice, and proposing negotiations for peace. Anxious to save life and secure peace, General Scott granted the armistice, making it terminable in forty-eight hours. Negotiations were immediately opened between Mr. N. P. Trist, commissioner on the part of the United States, and a commissioner appointed by the Mexican government. On the 2d of September, Mr. Trist gave his ultimatum, and the commissioners adjourned to meet on the 6th. But in the meantime infractions of the truce by Santa Anna caused General Scott to resume hostilities.

The next point of attack was a fortified cannon foundry, called the "Casa Mata," and adjoining works as "Molino del Rey." Most of the defences of these positions were skillfully masked, and the American general could not obtain precise information by a reconnoissance. The plan of attack was devised, however, and General Worth was appointed to execute it at the head of three thousand two hundred men.

By day-break on the 8th of September, the troops were in position. The heavy guns were then opened, and the whole line of defence shook under their battering force. Major Wright led the assaulting party, under a tremendous fire, and at first drove the enemy from their guns, but they soon rallied, and a severe conflict ensued.

General Worth ordered up Cadwallader's brigade and the light battalion, and these troops coming into action at a suitable moment, saved the remnant of Wright's men. The Mexicans were again routed, and their central works fully carried and occupied. The attack was equally successful at the left, on Molino del Rey. The works were carried, and the Mexicans driven towards Chapultepec. The Casa Mata was found to be a far stronger work than first supposed, and the assailants were driven back with the

loss of at least one-third of their number. But the capture of the other works enabled the Americans to concentrate their strength, and the enemy were forced to abandon it after a short but destructive fire.

This was a splendid achievement; the entire line of fortresses captured was defended by fourteen thousand men, well provided with artillery and stores. The loss of the assailants was very severe—almost eight hundred men.

The capture of Molino del Rey cut off the communication between the city and the castle of Chapultepec, which fortress was destined to be the next object of attack. It was situated on a natural mound of great height, strongly fortified at its base, acclivities, and passes.

The assault upon Chapultepec began early on the 12th of September. The two divisions that moved to the attack in different directions were commanded by Generals Quitman and Pillow. A bombardment and a cannonade were opened upon the castle at an early hour, but stopped when the assault commenced. The Mexicans opened all their batteries as the Americans rushed forward to the attack, and the fire was tremendous. But the assailants pushed on up the broken ascent, over rocks and mines, and soon carried a redoubt. General Pillow was struck down by a grape-shot; but he was carried along with his party up the height, the troops being led by General Cadwallader. The assault was rapidly conducted, and the men of Pillow's division reached the castle first. Many were thrown from the walls, but the stream that followed soon took their places, and planted the colours of the United States on the highest walls. The other division, under Quitman, had more serious work. The batteries and works at the foot of the hill were only carried after a desperate struggle. Seven pieces of artillery, one thousand muskets, and five hundred and fifty prisoners, including one hundred officers, were the results of the victory at the lower batteries. About eight hundred prisoners,

including one major-general and six brigadiers, and a great number of inferior officers, were captured by Pillow's division. The forces in and around Chapultepec amounted to six thousand men, under the veteran General Bravo. Of this number, eighteen hundred were either killed, wounded, or taken prisoners.

The capture of Chapultepec opened to the American army the direct road to the western and southern portions of the city, which points now became the objects of attack. Aware of the importance of improving upon the impression made upon the enemy by so heavy a loss, General Scott determined to waste no time, but to press on immediately to the decisive assault.

The attack upon the city was made by two divisions. One, under General Worth, advanced along the road to the San Cosme gate; the other, under General Quitman, took the Tacubaya road, which led to the Belen gate. The troops of both divisions were exposed to a tremendous fire from the Mexican batteries, but they pressed on without faltering, and battery after battery was either silenced or captured. In the meantime, as part of the plan of attack, General Twiggs diverted the attention of the Mexicans by an incessant cannonade against the southern side of the city. At length the strong fortress of San Cosme was carried by Worth and his followers, and shouts announced his entrance into Mexico. Quitman met with a more obstinate resistance, being opposed at the Belen gate by General Santa Anna in person. The ammunition of the advance of the troops gave out, and they were exposed to a destructive fire until the deficiency was supplied. The garita was carried with a severe loss, and then darkness fell upon the scene. The Mexicans ceased firing, and the troops of Quitman's division set about erecting batteries to maintain their position within the city. Worth was prepared to continue the attack; but soon after his heavy guns were placed in a favourable position, a flag came from the municipality, the bearer of which



Quitman at the Bolen Gate.

stated that the government and the army had evacuated the city. All firing ceased upon the receipt of this flag. Worth's loss during the day was two officers killed and ten wounded, with one hundred and twenty-nine rank and file, killed, wounded and missing. Quitman's loss was five hundred and forty men, of whom seventy-seven, including eight officers, were killed, four hundred and fifty-four wounded, and nine missing.

Immediately after the capture of the city of Mexico, the small force at Puebla under the command of Colonel Childs, was besieged by a large force of Mexicans under the command of Santa Anna. Colonel Childs maintained his post, until the arrival of General Lane with reinforcements from Vera Cruz, when the enemy raised the siege. General Lane had had several encounters with the Mexicans on the march, and in one of these conflicts the brave Captain Walker was slain. But the enemy were defeated in every assault.

After the capture of the capital, negotiations for peace were resumed. In January, the general-in-chief laid before the Mexican authorities the basis of a treaty similar in its general features to one formerly rejected. The commissioners met at Guadalupe Hidalgo, and after a short negotiation, signed "a treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlement between the United States and the Mexican republic." By the terms of this instrument, Mexico ceded New Mexico and Alta California to the United States, in consideration of fifteen million of dollars, and recognised the Rio Grande as the western boundary of Texas. The evacuation of Mexico by the American forces was superintended by General Butler, General Scott having been suspended from his command in consequence of charges made by his subordinates. The return of peace was hailed with joy by the majority of both nations.



Colonel Fremont.

CHAPTER XIX.

The United States from the Mexican War.

THE conclusion of the Mexican war found the United States with a national debt increased more than a hundred millions of dollars ; but with a greatly extended territory, from which vast wealth was to be derived. The administration of President Polk was very eventful, and the work of government arduous. A difficulty with Great Britain concerning the title to Oregon territory was settled by negotiation, the 49th parallel of north latitude being agreed upon as the northern boundary of that portion of the territory belonging to the United States. The measures

of the Democratic party were fully carried out by President Polk. The tariff was reduced to a revenue standard, and the sub-treasury and the warehousing system established.

Soon after the conclusion of the war, the country was astounded by the intelligence of a great discovery in California.

In the latter part of February, 1848, a mechanic, named James Marshall, was employed in building a saw-mill for John A. Sutter, Esq., on the south side of the river, known in California as the American Fork, some fifty miles from New Helvetia, or Sutter's Fort. While employed in cutting a mill-race or canal for this improvement, Mr. Marshall discovered the pieces of gold as they glistened in the sunlight at the bottom of the sluices. Pieces of considerable size were taken from the water, and in a few days gold to the amount of one hundred and fifty dollars was removed in this manner. The labourers on the works, mostly Mormons, soon became satisfied of its precious nature, and the news spread rapidly about the country. Examinations were prosecuted at other points along the stream, and almost every where with success. Reports of a most marvellous nature soon reached the coast, touching these mines. Their apparent extravagance created incredulity, and the public attention was not fully called to the subject until gold-dust or grain-gold was brought into the market in considerable quantities for sale. Doubt soon became belief, and a change, almost magical in its nature, pervaded the whole population. Lawyers, doctors, clergymen, farmers, mechanics, merchants, sailors, and soldiers, left their legitimate occupations to embark on a business where fortunes were to be made in a few weeks. Villages and districts, where all had been bustle, industry, and improvement, were soon left without male population. Mechanics, merchants, and magistrates were alike off to the mines, and all kinds of useful occupations, except gold-digging, were here apparently at an end.

A vast influx of population from various quarters of the world followed. San Francisco became a large city, and new towns sprang up with astonishing quickness. Continued discoveries of gold increased the excitement and added to the splendid attractions of the new territory of the republic. The gold region was found to be at least six hundred miles in length and about one hundred and fifty in breadth, and it appeared inexhaustible.

The government of California being very defective, a convention was called and a State constitution framed. Application was then made for admission into the Union, but the agitation of the slavery question prevented an immediate compliance by congress.

In the latter part of 1848, the Presidential election occurred. The result was the triumph of the Whig candidates, General Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, and Millard Fillmore, of New York, over the Democratic candidate, Lewis Cass, of Michigan, and General William O. Butler, of Kentucky.

On the 4th of March, 1849, General Taylor was inaugurated President of the United States, and Millard Fillmore became Vice President upon the same day. The cabinet was composed of leading members of the Whig party, headed by John M. Clayton, of Delaware, as Secretary of State.

On the meeting of Congress, the opposition had a majority; but neither of the two great parties could harmonize upon the question of slavery; that exciting subject was introduced into every debate, and threats of dissolving the Union were boldly made by southern members. No business could be transacted. At length a series of compromise measures were proposed in the Senate. A special committee of thirteen senators reported an "Omnibus Bill," providing for the admission of California as a free State, the organization of territorial governments for New Mexico and the Mormon settlement of Utah, the abolition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia, and the

rendition of fugitive slaves. These measures were discussed for about two months; then reported, slightly modified, and adopted by both Houses.

In the meantime, the nation was thrown into mourning by the death of its chief magistrate. President Taylor died on the 9th of July, 1850, after a brief illness. He had attained the age of sixty-five years. He was lamented as a great and good servant of the republic. By the provision of the Constitution, Vice President Fillmore became President, and the Senate elected its presiding officer *pro tempore*. Upon the accession of President Fillmore, the members immediately resigned their posts, and a new cabinet was organized, with Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, as Secretary of State.

During Mr. Fillmore's administration, the foreign relations of the country were skillfully managed. Difficulties occurred with Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, and Austria; but all were settled without a resort to arms. The right of way across Central America was secured to both Great Britain and the United States, by treaty.

Spain evinced great alarm for the safety of Cuba. In the spring of 1850, an expedition, under the command of General Lopez, with the object of revolutionizing that island, sailed from a southern port of the United States, in defiance of a proclamation by President Taylor. The invaders landed at Cardenas, on the coast of Cuba, but were compelled to retire. In the summer of 1851, the attempt was resumed by the same commander, with about four hundred and fifty men. He landed at Bahia Honda, and fought several battles; but his forces were routed, and nearly all the troops were killed or captured. Colonel Critenden and fifty-two other prisoners were summarily shot at Havana. General Lopez was executed by the garotte. A large number of the other prisoners were sent to Spain. The Queen reprimanded them and sent them to the United States. Thus

ended, disastrously, two rash attempts to wrest Cuba from the crown of Spain.

A difficulty occurred with Portugal concerning indemnity for the destruction of the privateer *Armstrong*, in a Portuguese port, during the war of 1812. This was submitted to the arbitration of President Bonaparte, of France, and he gave the award in favor of Portugal.

A difficulty in regard to the fisheries on the coast of British America remained unsettled.

During the Hungarian struggle for independence, in 1849, the government of the United States had sent an agent to Hungary to ascertain the situation of affairs. The Austrian minister, the Chevalier Hulsemann, denounced the agency as an interference in the domestic affairs of Austria. Secretary Webster replied in a letter, vindicating the course pursued by the government of the United States, and rebuking the dictatorial spirit of Austria. In October, 1852, Mr. Webster died, and Edward Everett, of Massachusetts, was appointed to succeed him as Secretary of State.

In the fall of 1852, the Presidential election occurred, the principal candidates for the chief magistracy being General Winfield Scott, of New Jersey, General Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, and John P. Hale, also of New Hampshire. General Pierce was chosen President by a very large majority. William R. King, of Alabama, was elected to the Vice Presidency at the same time.

On the 4th of March, 1853, the successful candidates were inaugurated. Vice President King died of consumption shortly after taking the oath of office. President Pierce's cabinet was composed of leading members of the Democratic party, William L. Marcy, of New York, being appointed Secretary of State.

The first important business that engaged the attention of the new administration concerned the foreign relations of the republic. During President

Fillmore's administration; Lord John Russel, the British Minister of Foreign Affairs, proposed that Great Britain, France, and the United States should enter into a tri-partite treaty securing Spain in the possession of Cuba. This proposal Secretary Everett declined, in a letter remarkable for its splendid vindication of American progressive policy. After the inauguration of President Pierce, Lord John Russel replied to this letter in a sarcastic tone, and Mr. Everett, with the approval of the Secretary of State, published a rejoinder, displaying even more American spirit and diplomatic ability than his first reply.

In June, 1853, an event occurred, which marks the commencement of a new era in the foreign policy of the United States. Martin Koszta, a Hungarian exile, having sought a refuge in the United States, and declared his intention of becoming a citizen of the republic, visited the Mediterranean to attend to some private affairs. He obtained an American passport and went to Smyrna. There he was suddenly arrested by the Austrian consul, and hurried on board the Austrian sloop-of-war *Hussar*. The United States corvette, *St. Louis*, chanced to be in the harbor of Smyrna, and her gallant commander, Captain D. H. Ingraham, immediately demanded the release of Koszta. The commander of the *Hussar* refused to comply. Captain Ingraham then made a show of force, and succeeded in so far daunting the Austrians, that they agreed to give Koszta to the care of the French consul, to await the action of the governments of Austria and the United States. Captain Ingraham was highly lauded by his countrymen for his bold conduct in this affair.

The imperial government of Austria protested against what it called the unjust interference of Captain Ingraham. To this protest, Secretary Marcy, premier of the American administration, replied in a calm, but firm, logical, and convincing argument, showing that the act of the Austrian consul was in

violation of the law of nations, and that if any reparation was to be made, Austria was the power called upon to make it. This document greatly added to that foreign influence, which the United States had acquired during President Fillmore's administration.

In consequence of the bold stand taken by the United States government in this affair, Austria was considerably humbled. Compelled to retreat or to take the responsibility of kidnapping an American citizen, she chose the former alternative, and Koszta was released, and permitted to return to the United States. For some years, the relations between the republic and Austria had not been of the most amicable character; and this affair tended to increase the alienation of the two governments.

QUESTIONS

FOR THE

EXAMINATION OF PUPILS.

CHAPTER I.

(Page 7.) From what has it been inferred that America was not unknown to the ancients?

Did any trace of this knowledge exist at the period of the revival of letters?

(P. 8.) What was then supposed to form the western boundary of the world?

When was America discovered by the Northmen? What prevented the colonization of America by the Northmen?

To whom are we indebted for the knowledge of this continent? What led Columbus to suppose its existence? What error did he fall into? What was the cause of this error? To whom did Columbus first apply for aid in his undertaking? How did the Genoese treat his proposal? To what government did he next apply?

(P. 9.) How had the court of Portugal already distinguished itself? Of what treacherous act were the Portuguese guilty? What was its effect upon Columbus? To whom did he then apply for support in his project? What prevented the King of England from accepting the offers of Columbus?

To what government did he, as a last resource, present his scheme? For how many years did Columbus solicit aid? How did Queen Isabella aid him? When did he at last set sail? From what port? What course did he take? What raised the fears

of the sailors? What was the consequence? What led to a second revolt?

What induced them to continue their voyage? What was discovered on the night of the 11th of October?

(P. 10.) When was land discovered? What was then the conduct of the sailors? Where did they first land? What island was next discovered? Where was gold said to abound? When was the island of Hayti discovered? Where did Columbus leave a colony?

(P. 11.) How was Columbus received on his return to Spain? What made the government eager to forward his design? How many vessels were prepared for the second voyage? To what office was Columbus now appointed? What islands did he discover in his second voyage?

What was the effect of the success of Columbus, at the court of Spain? How did the court show its distrust? What did Columbus effect in his subsequent voyages? Was he the first to discover the continent?

Who was Amerigo Vespucci? When did he visit the continent? What did he do on his return? What honour did he receive in consequence of that publication? Who was better entitled to that honour?

Who was John Cabot? When did he receive a commission from Henry VII. of England? What were the terms of that grant? When did Cabot sail from England?

(P. 12.) For what was his first voyage intended? How did it terminate? Who had the direction of the second English expedition? What did he discover on the 24th of June? What is that island now called? What course did he then take? How far did he follow the coast? What was done by him in 1502?

(P. 13.) What part of the continent was visited by Ponce de Leon? From what is Florida said to have derived its name?

When did the French commence their discoveries? What was done by Verrazani? When did Gomez visit the coast? What was the extent of his discoveries?

Describe Cartier's voyage. What river did he discover? What did he do the following year? What did he call the country?

(P. 14.) When did De Soto sail from Cuba? What object

had he in view? When did he arrive at Spirito Santo? Where did he die? What was done by Cartier in 1541 and 1542? What was done by La Roche in 1542? What was done in 1550?

What was discovered by Ribault in 1562? Describe Frobisher's voyages. Where did Sir Francis Drake land on the Continent of North America? What name did he give to the surrounding country? For what lands did Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtain a patent? With what provision? When did he sail? Describe his voyage.

CHAPTER II.

(P. 15.) To whom did Queen Elizabeth grant a patent in 1584? When did he send out a colony? Where did they land? What did they call the country? What became of this colony?

(P. 16.) When were two other attempts made to establish a colony in Virginia? With what success?

What place did Gosnold visit in 1602? Were any settlements made there? What was the extent of colonization in North America at the commencement of the 17th century?

When did Bartholomew Gilbert die? What country was granted to De Mons in 1608? By whom? What name was given to that country?

What was discovered by Weymouth in 1605? How did James I. divide Virginia? To what companies were the two territories granted? What was done by the London company in December, 1606? When did the ships enter the Chesapeake Bay?

Where did they commence their settlement? What name did they give the place? What hardships were experienced by the colony?

(P. 17.) To whom was the colony indebted for its preservation? How did he preserve the colony? What happened to him while in quest of provisions? How did he at that time save his own life? To whom was he then conducted?

(P. 18.) How was his life again preserved? How did Pocahontas afterward save the colony?

What was the state of the colony in 1610? What prevented their return to England? What was the state of the colony under Lord Delaware and his successor? When was the first legislature convened? Why was the lower house then called the

house of *burgesses*? What addition was made to the number of emigrants in 1619? How were the young women distributed among the planters? When were negro slaves first introduced?

What took place in 1622? How many of the settlers were destroyed? What prevented the destruction of the whole settlement?

(P. 19.) What added to the distress occasioned by this? What was done on the arrival of a reinforcement of settlers?

What was done by James I. on the 15th of July, 1624? In whom were the legislative and executive powers vested? What was the character of the government under these regulations? How was Harvey treated on account of his oppressive measures? Who succeeded him? How did he govern the province?

What side did the Virginians take on the commencement of the civil war in England? What was the consequence? Did the Virginians submit? What rights did they secure to themselves before submitting?

(P. 20.) How were the governors appointed during the existence of the commonwealth of England? What dispute arose in 1658? When did Cromwell die? Who succeeded him? When did he resign? What was consequently done by the assembly of Virginia? Whom did they elect governor? What powers and injunctions were given him? What restraint was put upon him? What was ordered with respect to the laws? What was declared to be the established religion of the colony? How was the governor authorized to punish *non-conformists*?

(P. 21.) What now injured the trade of Virginia? What made the landed proprietors discontented? What was the result? By what name is that rebellion known?

Who put himself at the head of the people? What was Bacon's character? What determined his purpose? What was done by Bacon's party? What put an end to the rebellion? What were the effects of this rebellion? Who succeeded Berkeley? What did he bring with him? Were they satisfied? What was their object? What their effect? From what did Virginia suffer during the reigns of Charles II. and James?

(P. 22.) When was printing prohibited in Virginia?

During what time did Virginia enjoy great tranquillity? What happened in 1732? What exempted Virginia from hostilities

during the wars between France and England, prior to 1754? What happened between 1754 and 1758? Who first distinguished himself in this war? What was done by Virginia when the British attempted to raise a revenue in the colonies? What is said of her services and sufferings in the war of the Revolution? What important measure of that war happened in Virginia?

CHAPTER III.

(P. 23.) When was Quebec settled? When was the Hudson river discovered? By whom? When was the earliest effectual settlement made in New York? Where? What happened in 1614, to interrupt the jurisdiction of the Dutch?

(P. 24.) When was it restored? How did the Dutch extend their possessions? To whom was the country granted, in 1621? By what name? Who was the first governor under the company? Who the second? What were the acts of Kieft?

Who was the third and last governor of the New Netherlands? What was the character of his administration? How was he constantly employed? How did he settle these disputes?

To whom was a patent granted by Charles II. in 1664? What was included in that grant? Who commanded the forces sent against New York? When did they arrive? What did he offer to the inhabitants on condition that they would surrender? What did Stuyvesant do to prevent the people from capitulating? What obliged the old governor to yield?

(P. 25.) Of what did the English then take possession? What name did they give to Fort Orange? What expedition was then undertaken? What success attended it?

What was the character of Nicholls' authority? How was it exercised? Who succeeded Nicholls in the government? What happened in New York in 1673? When was it again ceded to England? What was now obtained by the duke of York? Who was made governor-general? What was the character of his administration? What permission was given in 1683? What was done in New York on receiving the news of the imprisonment of Andros?

(P. 26.) What part of the colony refused to acknowledge the authority of Leisler? What was done in consequence of the re-

sistance of Albany? Who was sent out as governor from England? What was attempted by Leisler? What was his fate?

What was the effect of the English revolution upon New York? What was done by the assembly? What was the state of the province for many years afterwards? What was the conduct of the province in the wars which arose with the French of Canada and the frontier Indians? What happened at Schenectady in 1690? How many were destroyed in that massacre? What was done by the people of New York in 1709 and 1711?

(P. 27.) What was the cause of the failure of these expeditions?

By whom was New York invaded in 1715? By whom was Dieskau opposed? What was the result of the engagement? When was Fort William Henry taken? By whom? What happened in 1758? When was Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken from the French? What was done by General Johnson?

(P. 28.) When was Canada surrendered to the British?

What was the conduct of New York on the imposition of the Stamp Act in 1765? What did the assembly refuse to do in 1767? What bill was passed in consequence of that? What was the effect of that upon the people? What was done by the assembly in 1769? What was the condition of New York during the war of the Revolution?

CHAPTER IV.

(P. 29.) What company was entrusted with the colonization of the country lying between the 38th and 45th degrees of north latitude? What success attended the first attempts of this company? What prevented a settlement being made, in 1607? From whom did the puritans obtain a charter? When?

(P. 30.) How many of them sailed for America? Where did they land? What name did they give to the place? What was their first care? Who was chosen as their first governor? How was he aided in the discharge of his duties? How was the number of assistants afterwards increased? In what did the supreme power reside? When did they establish a house of representatives? What did they do in imitation of the primitive

Christians? What induced them to relinquish it? What did they obtain from the Plymouth Company in 1630?

(P. 31.) Did the settlement of Massachusetts advance rapidly? What was the name of the first permanent town which they erected? What was the next? What gave a fresh spring to the exertions of the Plymouth Company? How many emigrants arrived in July 1630?

(P. 32.) Of what town did some of them lay the foundation? What sufferings were experienced by the new colony, during the first years of its existence? What is said of the civil policy of the settlement? With what powers were commissioners appointed in 1635? What was forbidden by Charles I. two years afterwards? When was a *quo warranto* issued against Massachusetts? In whose favour was judgment given?

Did the colonists learn toleration from their own sufferings in England? How did they show that? What dispute arose in 1635? What argument was resorted to by the most numerous party? To what did the banishment of the leaders of one of the parties contribute?

(P. 33.) What was done by the Pequods in 1636? How were their designs defeated? How were the Pequods punished? What effect had the downfall of monarchy in England upon emigration? How did that event benefit New England? Between what colonies was an alliance formed? What of this union?

(P. 34.) What was the condition of Massachusetts on the restoration of Charles II.? What did he consequently fear? What measures did he take to prevent that evil? What ensued? What prevented Charles from destroying the charter of the colony?

Who succeeded Charles II. on the throne of England? What did he determine to do? Who did he employ to execute that task? How did Andros proceed? Did James pay any attention to the remonstrances made against these proceedings? What other colonies did he add to the union? How did the people put an end to the government of Andros? What was done by the people of Boston when they heard of the abdication of James?

Did the people of Massachusetts derive any great advantage from this change of government?

(P. 35.) How were they disappointed on petitioning for the

restoration of their charter? What power did the king retain to himself by the new charter? What power was given to the governor by it? What colony was united to Massachusetts? By whom were the Indians incited to make inroads upon the settlements? How did the colonists waste their wealth and strength? When did the expedition against Port Royal take place? What was contributed by Massachusetts for that expedition? In what other expedition did she engage during the same year? What caused the failure of both these expeditions? How long did Massachusetts continue to make these exertions?

What was done in 1708? What in 1711? How was the assembly engaged at the same time? What was the subject of contention between the governor and assembly?

What expedition was projected in Massachusetts in 1745?

(P. 36.) To whom was the command of the land forces given? What was the result of the expedition? Did England retain the possession of Louisbourg? What exertions were made by Massachusetts in the war which ended in the conquest of Canada? What part did Massachusetts take in the war of the Revolution? What has always been a great source of wealth to Massachusetts?

CHAPTER V.

(P. 37.) Who were the first European settlers in the state of Delaware? What is said of the region from which they emigrated?

(P. 38.) In what year was the first permanent settlement made in Delaware? What led Gustavus Adolphus to wish to form a colony of his subjects there? What association was accordingly formed? What name was given to it? Where did the first emigrants land? What name did they give to the country on both sides of the Delaware?

Where did the Swedes build a fort in 1630? Where in 1631? What settlements did they make within the present state of Pennsylvania?

On what did the Dutch found their claim to the country on the Delaware? With what did they, however, content themselves?

(P. 39.) What alarmed them for the validity of their title? To

whom had Charles II. ceded the British claim to the disputed territory? Where were the Dutch permitted to erect a fort? What did that obtain for them? Who succeeded Printz in the government of the Swedish settlement? What produced open hostilities? Give an account of the conquest of Nova Suecia by the Dutch? What was done with the prisoners? With what was the colony then incorporated? Where was the seat of government fixed?

By whom was the title of the Dutch again questioned? What gave rise to that dispute? How did it terminate?

(P. 40.) What part of North America had been granted to the duke of York in 1664? When were the Dutch settlements on the Hudson surrendered to the English? Who was sent against their settlements on the Delaware? With what success? How long did the Dutch authority on the western bank of the Delaware exist?

To whom was the administration of affairs now committed? When was a commission of justices appointed? With what power? What was reserved to the government at New York? What again revived the authority of the Dutch on the Delaware? For what were deputies sent to New York? Who was appointed governor? What put a final period to the Dutch government? When was a new patent given to the duke of York? What was granted by it? How long did Delaware remain under the jurisdiction of New York?

When was Delaware conveyed to William Penn?

(P. 41.) By whom? Into how many counties was it then divided? What was the country called until the Revolution? When did William Penn land at Newcastle? When were the three lower counties annexed to Pennsylvania? How were the Dutch and Swedes residing within Penn's dominions, treated?

How long did the representatives of Delaware and Pennsylvania meet in one legislature? When did a disagreement take place? When a separation into distinct assemblies? When did the first local assembly meet at Newcastle? What were their first acts? What prevented serious consequences from following these acts? What dispute was finally settled in 1760?

(P. 42.) What was the conduct of Delaware in the old French war? How was she repaid?

How long did Delaware remain under the government of the proprietary of Pennsylvania? What is said of the dependence of Delaware upon Pennsylvania? When did the proprietary of Pennsylvania resign his jurisdiction over the lower counties? What was done in September 1776? What is said of the conduct of Delaware in the Revolutionary war? For what was the Delaware regiment distinguished among the regular forces?

CHAPTER VI.

(P. 43.) By whom was Connecticut first settled? Who soon followed them? What were these two colonies called?

(P. 44.) How long did they continue under distinct governments? What name was given to them on their consolidation? When had the people of Connecticut formed a constitution? What resolution was adopted in the same year by the people of New Haven?

In what circumstances did these two settlements closely resemble each other? When was the first confederation formed in this country? Between what colonies? What name was given to the confederation?

When was a charter granted to Connecticut? For what was that charter remarkable? Did the Dutch at New York claim any part of Connecticut? How was the dispute settled? How was the Indian war terminated? What was the character of Philip?

(P. 45.) When was a *quo warranto* issued against Connecticut? For what purpose? Were the assembly disposed to yield their privileges? How did Andros proceed? What would have been the probable consequence in America, if the Stuarts had continued to reign in England? What had been done by the people of Connecticut before official intelligence of the Revolution of 1688 reached them?

When was the ancient charter of Connecticut re-established? Had it ever been surrendered? What lessened the satisfaction of the people? In what did this dispute originate? How was the authority of Fletcher resisted?

(P. 46.) How did the king afterwards determine their right to the command of the militia? When was another unsuccessful attempt made upon the rights of the province? In what did

Connecticut aid the mother country, while thus harassed? What caused the failure of the expeditions undertaken in 1709 and 1710? How did Connecticut contribute to the capture of Louisbourg? What is said of her exertions in the war which terminated in the conquest of Canada? What expenses were incurred by her in that war?

How did Connecticut improve the short period of repose which followed the conquest of Canada? How did she act when Britain attempted to collect a revenue from the colonies?

(P. 47.) What induced a feeling of hostility in her towards Britain? Of what use were her militia? How did she bear her part in the Revolutionary war?

CHAPTER VII.

How does Maryland rank with the other colonies, with regard to its date of settlement? What license did William Clayborne obtain from Charles I.? When? Where did he plant a colony? Who was George Calvert? When did he make a voyage to Virginia? With what view? Why did he not settle there? To what territory did he then direct his attention? What prevented him from completing his design?

Who obtained the patent to the country north of the Potomac? When?

(P. 48.) What part of the country was included in that charter? How was that grant curtailed? What was the country granted to Lord Baltimore called? In honour of whom? What is said of the principles upon which the settlement of this colony was begun?

(P. 49.) To what were they similar? What was their effect upon the prosperity and population of Maryland? By what was the policy of this settlement chiefly distinguished above others of that period?

Of what did the first emigration to Maryland consist? When did they land? At what place? Who was appointed first governor? What drew settlers to Maryland in preference to the other colonies? How did the Indians act towards the new comers? What name was given to the town? When was the first legislative assembly held? What was done by them? By

the proprietary? By the assembly again in their turn? What act was passed in 1639? Of what did the two branches consist?

(P. 50.) What change in this system took place in 1650?—What was necessary to all laws? Who was the cause of the first trouble to Maryland? What was Clayborne's character? What did he do when the first settlers arrived? Was it granted? What decision was made by Lord Baltimore's commissioners with respect to Kent Island? How did Clayborne revenge himself? What was the result of the war which commenced in 1642? In what did Clayborne, however, succeed in 1645? When, and in what way was quiet again restored?

When was the peace of the province again disturbed? How were the colonists divided? What commissioners were appointed after the death of Charles I.? Who was made one of these commissioners?

(P. 51.) Which party finally prevailed? How was the government treated? What was then done by the triumphant party?

How was the province disturbed in 1656? What was Fendall's success? How long did the affairs of the province remain in an unsettled state? Who was then appointed governor by the proprietary? What Indian war now broke out? By whom were the colonists aided? What was the number of white inhabitants at this time?

Was the charter of Maryland also attacked by James II.?—What probably caused unusual delay in its revocation? What was at last done? What prevented the obtaining of judgment upon it? How was the colony divided by the assembly, in 1692? How was the name of the town of Severn changed? When did the assembly remove to Annapolis? What has since been the seat of government?

(P. 52.) In whom was the government of Maryland vested from the restoration of Charles II. until 1716? From 1716 until the Revolution?

Where was ROGER WILLIAMS born? When? What was the character of his political system? Why did he come to America? When did he arrive in Boston? What did he there maintain? How was he consequently treated? By whom was he hospitably received? What name did he give the place chosen

for his future residence? From whom did he buy the land?—
When was the settlement of *Rhode Island* commenced?

(P. 53.) What kind of government was formed by the followers of Williams? What restrictions did they impose upon themselves? What led to the rapid increase of their settlements? What controversy arose in Massachusetts soon after the exile of Williams? What course was adopted towards the least numerous party?

(P. 54.) Where did the exiles settle? By what names were the two colonies known? When were they united?

How were the Indians treated by the first settlers of Rhode Island? What was the consequence? When was a charter obtained? What privileges did it confer? To whom was the executive and legislative powers given? When was the first general assembly convened? What constituted the supreme court? How were the affairs of each township managed?

How was the settlement of Rhode Island regarded by Massachusetts? What was the consequence of that upon the colony?

(P. 55.) Was Rhode Island admitted into the confederacy of the United Colonies of New England? When did she petition to be received as a member? On what condition did they offer to admit her? Did she agree to the condition? When was a new charter granted to Rhode Island? How long did she continue to be governed by that charter? (1842?) What is stated in the Preamble to that instrument? What seems by this to have been adopted? What was the consequence? What was the only source of disquiet to Rhode Island?

(P. 56.) When was a *quo warranto* issued against her? What measures were adopted by Andros? What was done on his imprisonment, in 1689?

What is said of the history of Rhode Island, from this period to the commencement of the Revolution? What is said of the inhabitants? What was the population in 1730? What in 1746? What was done towards the expedition into Canada?

CHAPTER VIII.

When and by whom was the first discovery of any part of New Hampshire made? What was granted by the Plymouth Company to John Mason in 1621?

(P. 57.) To whom was another grant made the next year? What was included in that grant? What name was given to this last tract? When did Mason and Gorges attempt to establish a colony? Where? By whom were other settlements made on the coast? How did Mason and Gorges name their respective provinces?

(P. 58.) What is New Somersetshire now called? What rendered the settlement slow in their progress? How did the people occupy themselves?

To whom did the Indians grant a large tract of country? When did Mason obtain a new grant from the Plymouth Company? What did it include? What is that tract of country now called?

What evils resulted from the conflicting titles derived from the Indians and under the grant of Mason? What was the condition of the settlements which had been formed along the coast?

To whom did they apply for protection? How long did that union last? What prevented the heirs of Mason from obtaining a legal recognition of their claim?

Who was Robert Mason? What was done by him when Charles II. was restored to the throne?

(P. 59.) With what powers were commissioners sent out? What was done by the assembly of Massachusetts? How did the king decide when the matter was brought before him? What was the consequence of that decision? Of what did the new government consist?

What were the first acts of the assembly?

What was done by Mason in 1680? How did the council act? What did he do when he found that he was unable to bend them to his views?

Who was appointed governor? What did his commission authorize him to do? What did he order the inhabitants to do? Why was this unfair?

(P. 60.) Did many of the inhabitants take leases? Against whom was the first suit instituted by Mason? What was the result in that and the succeeding suits? What did Cranfield then do? Why did he adjourn the assembly? How did he revenge himself on them?

Give an account of his affair with Moody?

What was permitted when the complaints of the people reached the ears of the English government? What happened when Mason attempted to enforce executions on the judgments he had obtained? What particular instance of resistance is mentioned?

(P. 61.) With what commission did Andros arrive in 1686? How was his tyranny felt in New Hampshire? How long did this state of things continue?

With whom did New Hampshire then connect herself? How long did that union last? Why was the union dissolved? What had Mason done, in the meantime, with respect to his claims? What put a stop to his proceedings? To whom did his heirs sell the claim? What did he obtain from the crown?

(P. 62.) What rendered his title imperfect? What was the result of the suits again brought against Waldron and others? To whom did Allen appeal? What delayed the proceedings? What was done by his son? When was this long protracted contest ended? How?

What is said of the contests of New Hampshire with the Indians? When was the province finally exempted from their ravages? What is said of the prosperity of New Hampshire during the peace? What territory was supposed to form a part of her province? To whom was this district, however, allotted?

(P. 63.) How long did the controversy which ensued continue?

CHAPTER IX.

(P. 64.) Of what did *North Carolina* originally form a part? In what patent was it included? What was done by Amidas and Barlow? On what day did they take possession of the country? How were they received by the inhabitants? Who commanded the second expedition?

(P. 65.) When did it arrive on the coast? How did they treat the Indians? Where did they leave a colony? What plot was formed by the Indians? How was its execution prevented? When and why did they return to England?

What happened a few days after their departure? Was Raleigh discouraged by these failures? What did he do the next spring? What was the result of that attempt?

How did the first permanent settlement of North Carolina commence? Where was a settlement made in 1661? By whom?

(P. 66.) On what pretence did the Indians break up their settlement? When did a colony arrive from Barbadoes? What was its number? What commerce did they carry on? What offers did Berkeley make to settlers?

What country did Charles II. grant to Lord Clarendon and others? What did the proprietors claim under that patent? What made the inhabitants of Albemarle dissatisfied? For what did they petition? Why did they revolt from the proprietary government? When did they submit? When was a constitution framed for the government of the colony? What were the principal provisions of that constitution? When did the proprietors attempt to put a new constitution in force?

(P. 67.) For what was that constitution remarkable? What were the provisions of this instrument with respect to the palatine and nobility? Of what was the parliament to consist? What power was given to the parliament? What was the whole number of regulations in that constitution? Why was the operation of this constitution opposed? What was done by the insurgents? What was the state of affairs in North Carolina for many years afterwards? What was its population in 1702?

Who arrived in 1710? Where did they settle?

Did the settlers of North Carolina give any provocation to the Indians?

(P. 68.) What design was, notwithstanding, conceived by the Corees and Tuscaroras? How did they proceed to put their plot in execution? How many of the Roanoke settlers were killed in one night? To what place was information sent? What aid did the assembly send to Roanoke? How did Barnwell proceed? What was the result of Barnwell's attack? To whom did the Tuscaroras unite themselves?

To whom did the proprietors sell the province in 1717? For what sum? By whom was the government administered from that time until 1776? How was the colony soon afterwards reinforced? By what was the prosperity of the colony again retarded? Give an account of the proceedings of the "regulators."

(P. 69.) By whom were they opposed? With what success?

What was the conduct of North Carolina in the war with Great Britain?

To whom was *South Carolina* granted in 1662? Where was the germ of her population planted? When? By whom? To what place did they remove in 1671? Of what town did they then lay the foundation? Why was that site abandoned?

(P. 70.) When did a second removal take place? To what place? What town was there founded? When was the settlement called South Carolina? Had the two Carolinas separate governments? What was the effect of the introduction of Locke's constitution in South Carolina? For what did the people petition? What change in the government was effected in 1719?

What was done by the proprietors in 1729? How was the colony governed from that time? What was the effect upon it, of the revocation of the edict of Nantes? Where did the French protestants generally settle? What other circumstances procured many settlers for South Carolina?

(P. 71.) How was rice introduced into Carolina? How did it promote the prosperity of the colony?

What impeded the prosperity and population of this state in the early part of the eighteenth century? What expedition was undertaken in 1702? By whom was it suggested? What was its success?

What did Governor Moore do the next year? What was done by the Spaniards and French in 1706? Of what did that expedition consist? Who was then governor of the province? How did he receive the Spaniards? What was the result of their expedition?

(P. 72.) In what wars were the South Carolinians engaged from 1712 to 1718? What was the object of the Indians in undertaking those wars? By what was the province harassed from 1755 to 1759? When did hostilities again break out? What added to the calamities of the settlers? How long did this state of things continue?

What was the state of the province from that period until 1776? Why were the Carolinians somewhat undecided at the commencement of the contest? What circumstance seems to have determined their conduct? From what did this state suffer dur-

ing the ensuing struggle? For what was the war in South Carolina and its vicinity remarkable?

CHAPTER X.

(P. 73.) Who claimed the whole of *New Jersey*? Against what did they protest? To whom was it granted in 1664? When did the duke of York sell it? To whom? When did it first receive the name of New Jersey? How did the new proprietors encourage emigration?

(P. 74.) What honourable rule did they establish? How much land was offered to each settler? On what condition? What important privilege was given to the inhabitants?

Who was the first governor of New Jersey? What system did he pursue towards the Indians? What was the consequence? During what period was New Jersey under the government of the Dutch? What was then obtained by the duke of York? What authority did he give to Sir Edmund Andros? When did Andros arrive in America? To whom did Berkeley assign his part of New Jersey? How was the province then divided?

(P. 75.) Did the duke of York give up his claims to West Jersey? What disputes arose between the duke of York and the proprietors of New Jersey? To whom was the question at length referred? How did he decide? What was the duke accordingly compelled to do? What accession was received by the province about the year 1680? What towns did they build?

To whom did Carteret transfer his interest in the province? When? To whom did they convey part of it? When did the Scotch proprietors obtain a patent? Who was the first governor of East Jersey, under the proprietors?

(P. 76.) What was still attempted by the government of New York? When was a *quo warranto* issued against the proprietors? What did they do? What was the intention of James II. with respect to the colony of New Jersey? What prevented his carrying this design into effect? What was the state of the province for several years after the English revolution? What was done in 1702?

Who was the first royal governor? Of what other province was Cornbury governor? Why was he removed from office?

What tended to augment the population and prosperity of New Jersey? What involved her in war?

(P. 77.) To what did she contribute? For what were laws passed in 1709? How was the credit of this money sustained? When was a separate governor appointed? Who was the last royal governor of New Jersey?

How did New Jersey act when the British government attempted to impose an arbitrary authority over the colonies? Did she send deputies to Congress? What is said of her losses in the contest which ensued? By what was Trenton rendered memorable? What happened at Princeton? What is said of the cruelties perpetrated by the British army? What was their effect on the people?

CHAPTER XI.

(P. 78.) Who was WILLIAM PENN? To what sect did he attach himself?

(P. 79.) What sufferings did he undergo? What induced Penn to turn his attention to America? Where did he purchase land? Why did he form the design of acquiring a separate estate? How did he acquire it? What was included in his charter? Under what name? With what did this interfere? What was the consequence of that?

Whom did he send over in 1681? For what purpose? To whom did he sell 20,000 acres? At what rate? When did Penn publish his frame of government? In whom was the supreme power vested?

(P. 80.) Of how many members did the provincial council consist? How were they chosen? Who presided in that council? What was the office of the council? Was this frame of government continued?

When did Penn arrive? Where? What had he previously obtained? What was his first step? Where was the first assembly held? When? What was done by that assembly? What admirable principle did they adopt? How did Penn treat the Indians? What did he obtain from them? How were the treaties thus formed, kept? What tended to promote the prosperity of *Pennsylvania*?

(P. 81.) What to increase her population?

Who prepared the design for the laying out of Philadelphia? Where was the second assembly of Pennsylvania held? When? What important law did they adopt? What was the effect of the revolution in England on the government of Pennsylvania? When was Pennsylvania annexed to New York? How long did it continue so? Who was appointed lieutenant-governor by Penn? What disputes existed in Pennsylvania? How often had the charter been altered? When did Penn give them a third charter? What was provided in that charter?

(P. 82.) Was that charter adopted by Pennsylvania? By the "three lower counties on the Delaware?" How was the matter settled? How long did this constitution continue in force?

When did William Penn die? At what age? What is said of him and his successors? What is said of the history of Pennsylvania from the death of Penn to the Revolution? What was the chief subject of dispute? When was a treaty concluded with the Six Nations? What was granted by that treaty?

(P. 83.) Did Pennsylvania oppose the arbitrary measures of British government which led to the Revolution? For what is Philadelphia distinguished?

CHAPTER XII.

(P. 84.) Which of the thirteen states was the last settled? By whom had the country lying within the present boundaries been claimed?

(P. 85.) What led to the first attempt at settlement in *Georgia*? For what was a company formed? What territory was granted to them in 1732? What was the title of the corporation? When did the first emigrants arrive? Who was their leader? From whom did they obtain land by cession? Of what town did they lay the foundation? When? What impeded the progress of the settlement? How were the lands granted? On what condition were they parcelled out? In what case was the land to revert to the trustees? What regulation, more reconcilable with good policy, was made?

What was the effect of these restrictions? How many emigrants arrived in 1734?

(P. 86.) What was their character? What did the trustees do in order to obtain more suitable settlers? With what effect?

How did the parliament aid the colony? What was the effect of the war between Spain and England, on the prosperity of Georgia? Who was appointed commander-in-chief? How did he secure the safety of Georgia? What did he then propose to do? With what force did he invade *Florida*? What was the result of the expedition? How did the Spaniards retaliate? When? What hastened the return of the Spanish commander to Florida?

(P. 87.) By what was Georgia preserved on this occasion?

What freed Georgia from one source of disquiet? What was the state of the colony at the middle of the eighteenth century? What had produced that effect? Of what had the trustees thus deprived the colonists? What was the amount of the exports of Georgia in 1750? What in 1820? When was the government taken into the hands of the king? What privileges were extended to Georgia? When was a general assembly of representatives established? What lands were annexed to Georgia in 1763? What was the effect of the change in the government? How did the value of her exports increase in the next ten years?

(P. 88.) To what is much of this increase of prosperity to be attributed?

What was the condition of Georgia at the commencement of the American Revolution? What is said of her inhabitants? Did they take part in the Revolution? What did they in 1755? What was suffered by Georgia during the ensuing war?

CHAPTER XIII.

(P. 89.) When was the continent of America discovered by Cabot? What length of time elapsed before any permanent settlement was effected on its shores? What was the greater part of the United States, east of Florida, called? In honour of whom? What practice was followed by Elizabeth of England? When was the earliest settlement in pursuance of these grants, made? Where? When did the Dutch commence a settlement? When? How long did they retain possession of New York?

(P. 90.) When was Massachusetts settled? By whom? What was the next settlement in order of time? The two next? By whom was Connecticut colonized? By whom was Maryland colonized? What led to the founding of Rhode Island? In

what year was it settled? When was New Hampshire settled? When was North Carolina settled? By whom? When was South Carolina settled? Who had early made partial settlements in New Jersey? When was it effectually colonized?—Who had planted themselves at an early period in Pennsylvania? When did William Penn arrive? Which was the last settled of the original thirteen states? When was it founded? By whom?

What is said of the history of all new colonies? By what were the ordinary evils augmented in the case of the American settlements? What has been the aim of the most sagacious Indian chiefs? What success attended their efforts? In what was the Indian hostility most effective? What settlements suffered most from the Indian warfare?

(P. 91.) What was the effect of the system pursued in Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Maryland? What evil arose from the proximity of the French settlements in Canada? What is said of the influence of the governors of Canada over the Indians? What was seen by the colonists to be necessary to their repose? What plans were consequently devised by them? For what did commissioners meet in 1690? What caused the failure of the enterprise? When were similar attempts made? With what success?

When did the colonists enjoy a short period of repose? What again renewed the war with the French and Indians? What colonies had previously been the chief theatres of Indian incursions?

(P. 92.) What opportunity did the extension of the French settlements on the Ohio give them? What colonies were harassed by the Spaniards and the Southern Indians? By whom was an attack made upon Louisbourg? When? With what success?

When did the colonies again enjoy a short period of repose? What proposal was made by some of the colonies at the time? Why was the plan abandoned?

By what was the year 1755 rendered memorable? What saved Braddock's army from entire ruin? When was Fort Du Quesne taken by the British and provincials? What other places were finally taken from the French? What was the effect of the conquest of Canada upon the colonies? How was their improved condition regarded by the mother country?

(P. 93.) What did the people of Great Britain determine to do? What was their first step in that resolution? When was an act of Parliament passed to that effect? What ensued in the colonies? Where did delegates assemble?

(P. 94.) Upon what did they agree? What associations were entered into by the people? What was the effect of this upon the British ministry? Did they give up the right of taxing the colonies?

What act was passed in 1767? What did the colonies refuse to do? What was then done by the British government? What was done by the colonists to counteract the design of collecting this duty? What was done with the tea sent to Boston? What act was passed when intelligence of that proceeding reached England? What was the effect of that act upon the American provinces?

What was done by Massachusetts after the passage of the Boston Port Bill? What did she recommend?

(P. 95.) When did a congress of delegates convene? What was done by them? How did England still attempt to force her colonies to submission? Why did she in these measures except North Carolina, Delaware, and New York? What effect was produced upon those three colonies by that exception? What was going on in the meantime?

CHAPTER XIV.

(P. 96.) When did the first conflict between the Americans and the English take place? Who commanded the British troops in Boston? What was done by him on the 18th of April, 1775?

(P. 97.) How was the alarm given? What happened at Lexington? What at Concord? Did they succeed in destroying the stores? How were they reinforced in their retreat? What was the conduct of the Americans during the retreat of the British?

(P. 98.) How many men did they lose? What position did the two armies then take? What was done by the provincials on the night of the 16th of June? How many men occupied the post? Give an account of the three attempts made by the British to dislodge them. What was the result? What was the loss on each side? What American general was killed in this engagement?

When did the second Continental Congress meet? Where? On what did they determine? Who was elected commander-in-

chief of the troops? When did he take command of the forces? What was the state of the troops? What did he undertake with them?

(P. 99.) By whom was an attempt made upon Canada? How did they reach Quebec? Give an account of their attempt to carry the place? Which of the commanders was killed? Was the attempt abandoned? How long did the British remain in possession of Boston? Where did they go on leaving Boston? Where did Washington then establish his head quarters?

(P. 100.) When did the British attack Fort Moultrie? By whom were the British forces led? Who defended the fort? How long did the battle continue? Why were the land forces not brought into action? What happened during the naval engagement? For what place did the fleet and troops depart?

What was attempted by Congress while these affairs were in progress? What did they do when they found their remonstrances fruitless? When were the united colonies declared free and independent? Where was that done?

When did Sir William Howe land on Long Island? With how many men? What was the number of the American forces at that time?

(P. 101.) Who commanded the American detachment on Long Island? Where were they stationed? What orders had been given with respect to the passes in the hills?

(P. 102.) How and where did the British make their way through the hills? What was thus gained by the British? What was the consequence?

What was done by Washington as soon as he heard of the commencement of the action? To what did he confine his exertions? What prevented Sir William Howe from immediately attacking the American position?

Give an account of the celebrated retreat that was accomplished on the night of the 28th. What was seen by the British in the morning?

Why did Washington retire from New York Island? When was it entered by the British? How far was the retreat of the Americans continued?

(P. 103.) When was Fort Washington taken by the British? How many prisoners did they take? What other fort was taken? What added to the misfortunes of the army?

When did the British give up the pursuit of the Americans? Where was their main body cantoned?

Did Congress think of submission? Where were detachments of the Hessian troops stationed? What did Washington determine to do? With how many men did he cross the Delaware? When did he cross? How was he retarded in his passage? How did the Americans move to the attack?

(P. 104.) Give an account of the battle? How many of the enemy were killed? How many surrendered themselves prisoners? What was the loss on the American side? What distinguished man was among the wounded?

What other part of the army had been ordered to cross the river and co-operate with Washington? What compelled their return?

When did Washington recross the Delaware? What was the effect of the victory at Trenton?

(P. 105.) When and where did the two armies again meet? By what were they separated? What separated the combatants?

To what difficulties was Washington now exposed? What did he resolve to do?

How did he draw off his army without exciting the suspicions of the enemy? By whom were they encountered near Princeton? Of what was Washington well aware? How did he consequently exert himself? What was his conduct in the battle? In what manner did two of the British regiments retreat?

(P. 106.) What was the result of the engagement with the 3d regiment? What was the British loss in the battle of Princeton? What distinguished American officer was killed in that battle?

What first announced Washington's escape to Cornwallis? What did he immediately do? To what place did Washington retire to winter quarters? Where did the British concentrate their forces?

What was effected by Washington during the spring of 1777? What change did Howe consequently make in his plan? Where did he land? Where did Washington oppose him? How did Howe divide his troops on the 11th of September? To whom did he give the command? How did Knyphausen proceed? How did Cornwallis proceed? Who commanded the right wing of the American army?

(P. 107.) How did he proceed? When was he attacked by

Cornwallis? What was the result of that attack? What was effected by General Greene? By General Wayne? Whither did Washington then retire?

What was the American loss in the battle of Brandywine?—What the British? What distinguished officer first served in the American cause in this battle? What was his conduct in the action?

(P. 108.) Of what was Washington convinced by the result of this battle? When did Howe enter Philadelphia? Where was his army principally stationed?

What was the result of Washington's attack upon the British at Germantown?

What was done by the British on the 22d of October? With what success?

When was the attack on Fort Mifflin renewed? Who commanded the Americans in the fort? How did the garrison behave? When did they evacuate the post?

How did the British obtain possession of Fort Mercer? Of what importance was the possession of those forts to the British arms?

(P. 109.) What was done by Burgoyne in June 1777? What was the character of his first operations? How far did his success continue? How was he there opposed? In what way, and for what purpose did he divide his forces? By whom was the detachment attacked? With what success? What happened to the reinforcement sent by Burgoyne? What was he then compelled to do? When did Burgoyne surrender? What effects were produced by this event in the United States? What in France?

(P. 110.) What circumstance prevented Howe's army from sharing the fate of Burgoyne's? Where had Washington spent the preceding winter? What is said of the suffering and privations which they then endured? What foreign officer arrived while they occupied that encampment? To whom did Steuben offer his services? To what office was he appointed? How had he been qualified for the duties of that office?

(P. 111.) What reform did he effect in the army?

What was done by the Americans on the retreat of the British? Why did not Washington lead them to a general engagement? When did a partial action take place?

By whom was an attempt made on Rhode Island? What caused its failure?

(P. 112.) How was the year 1779 chiefly passed by the British? What appeared to be their object? How were their footsteps marked? What was the effect of these excesses upon the American people? By whom was Savannah and the whole state of Georgia conquered? By whom was South Carolina defended? With what success? What was the success of the attempt of the Americans upon Savannah? What caused its failure?

By whom was Stony Point taken? Give an account of its capture.

Give an account of Putnam's escape at Horse Neck. Why did not the British follow him?

(P. 113.) What command was given to Paul Jones? When? When and where did he encounter an enemy? What was the force on each side? When did the action commence? How long did it continue? What was the result of the action between the Serapis and the Bon Homme Richard?

(P. 114.) What had been done by the Pallas in the meantime? By whom was this engagement witnessed? How were the prizes taken by Jones estimated? How was he honoured by Congress?

(P. 115.) To what place was a large force despatched by the British in 1780? What did they accomplish? Who was sent to the relief of the inhabitants? What mistake did Gates make? What was the result of the battle? What distinguished foreigner fell in the battle of Camden?

To what did Cornwallis then direct his views? By what were his plans retarded? Who succeeded Gates in the command of the Southern army? What did he effect?

What happened in September, 1780?

(P. 116.) By whom was the victory at the Cowpens gained? When? How were the efforts of Cornwallis to recover the prisoners foiled? When did Greene re-enter North Carolina? Where did he fight a pitched battle with Cornwallis? What compelled Cornwallis to retreat to Wilmington?

What resolution was then formed by Greene? To what place did Cornwallis march?

What permission did Washington obtain from Congress during the winter of 1780-81?

When did Washington's army retire to winter quarters? Where were the several divisions stationed?

What revolts happened in January, 1781? How was the first appeased?

(P. 117.) By what was the second produced? How was it quelled?

How did the mutineers treat the overtures of Sir Henry Clinton? From what did the great distress of the army and the growing discontent of the people spring?

Why did Washington now direct his plans to the south? What was done by La Fayette? How were the royal troops engaged? What compelled La Fayette to fall back? How did he conduct his retreat?

Who advanced with fresh troops from the north? To what place did Cornwallis retreat?

(P. 118.) What did Washington and Rochambeau resolve to do? By what force was New York protected? When and where did the allied armies meet? Why did Washington determine to turn his whole attention to the south?

What orders did La Fayette receive? Where did he accordingly take post? Where did the British general fortify himself? When did the Count de Grasse enter the Chesapeake?

(P. 119.) What was brought on by the arrival of the British fleet? What followed?

What is said of the caution with which Washington managed his movement to the south? What force had he with him? To whom was the defence of the Hudson left?

How did Clinton endeavour to support Cornwallis? What was produced by one of the latter operations? When did the siege of Yorktown commence? What was the number of the besiegers?

Where is Yorktown situated? What and where is Gloucester Point? How did the British preserve the communications between these positions? By whom were the works at Gloucester Point occupied? Where was the main British army encamped?

Who was entrusted with the blockade of Gloucester? How did he succeed?

What was done by the allies on the 28th?

(P. 120.) What on the next day? What was done on the 6th of October? What on the 9th and 10th? What was the effect of the fire of the besiegers?

What is said of the spirit of emulation and esteem that existed among the allies? What was done on the night of the 11th? From what did the besiegers most severely suffer? When, and by whom, were these two outworks stormed?

(P. 121.) How were they gained?

What did Cornwallis now plainly see? What was the result of his attempt to destroy the two batteries? What did he then attempt? What compelled him to return to his former position?

What took place on the 17th? When was Yorktown surrendered to Washington? How many men were surrendered? To whom were the shipping and seamen yielded? What was the loss of the British during the siege? What of the allies?

How was General Greene engaged in the meantime? What decided the contest? When and how was the independence of the United States acknowledged by Great Britain?

CHAPTER XV.

(P. 122.) What was the effect of the successful issue of the war of the Revolution? What had been created by the expenses of the war? What other sources of evil existed? What did this state of affairs indicate? What desire did this excite in the friends of order? What was done at the instance of the Legislature of Virginia? What was done by these commissioners? When and where did the meeting of delegates convene? When did they lay the result of their labours before Congress? What did they declare?

(P. 123.) What wish did they express? Were these views and desires accomplished? How did that constitution operate? In what was public opinion divided? How was its ratification obtained? When did the new government go into operation?

Who was chosen first President of the United States? Who was the first Vice President? What were the effects of the new system of government? What was the conduct of the United States during the war arising out of the French revolution?

(P. 124.) What opposition was made to the neutral course. What two parties existed at that time? What was the result of the Indian war? Why was an excise laid on whiskey? To what did this excise lead? How was it suppressed?

(P. 125.) Who was chosen president in 1793? What is said of his farewell letter?

Who succeeded Washington? What course was pursued by the French government during his administration? What measures of defence were adopted by the American government? Who was appointed commander-in-chief? What great loss was soon after suffered by the nation? How was the national grief expressed? Give an account of the war between the United States and France.

What revolution in the administration of public affairs took place in 1801? Who was elected president? What was the condition of the United States during his first term of office?

(P. 126.) When was the European war renewed? What had the United States gained by their neutral position? What was done by the British to counteract that advantage? How did Napoleon retaliate? What orders were then issued by the English? What did Napoleon subsequently decree? Which of these nations were the aggressors? How did they farther outrage the national dignity? Was the country at that time prepared for war?

(P. 127.) What was attempted by Congress? What act was passed in December, 1807? What was afterwards substituted for this embargo law?

Who was elected to the office of president in 1809? Who was chosen vice president? What engagement was entered into with Mr. Erskine, the British minister? Was it ratified? Why not? Who succeeded Erskine as ambassador? Why was his recall desired by the president? What was commenced by the French government in August 1810? What was accordingly done by the president?

(P. 128.) What happened in May 1811? What other provocation was given by the British? What was the result of the battle of Tippecanoe?

How many American vessels were taken by the French after the revocation of the Berlin and Milan decrees? How many

were captured by the British in the ten years preceding 1812?—
What seemed to be necessary to redress these wrongs?

CHAPTER XVI.

How long was this system of restrictions upon commerce continued? What was done with a view to hostilities?

(P. 129.) When was war declared? What preparations had been made by the American government? What was the consequence?

Give an account of General Hull's operations. What sentence did the court martial pass upon him? Why did the president remit the punishment?

What expedition was undertaken by General Van Rensselaer? What was his success?

(P. 130.) How was the disappointment arising from these failures counterbalanced? When was the action between the Constitution and the Guerriere fought? Who commanded the Constitution? Give an account of the action. What was the loss on each side?

(P. 131.) What encounter took place on the 25th of October? Give an account of the action. What was the loss of the Macedonian? What was done with the ship?

What was done in November? Who commanded the Wasp? What was the loss on each side?

What other victory was gained before the close of the year?

(P. 132.) Who commanded the Constitution? What advantage was possessed by the British in the action? What was the result of the engagement? What was the loss on each side? What was done with the Java?

How did Captain Lawrence add to the glory of the American navy?

Were these victories confined to the public ships of the United States?

(P. 133.) How many vessels and prisoners had been taken, before the meeting of Congress in November?

What were the effects of these triumphs on the military spirit?

How were their effects evinced in the Western and Southern States? How in Pennsylvania and Virginia? Where was this patriotic zeal more particularly observable?

What prevented, for a time, the invasion of Canada? What did these governors declare? What was the effect of their refusal?

What preparations were at length made on the northern lines? Who used every exertion to create a fleet on the lakes? To what did the operations on these lakes extend during the revolution? What is said of the preparations that were now making.

(P. 134.) What was done by Congress in November?

What unsuccessful pacific proposals had been made? What was done by the government after the capture of Hull's army? To whom was the command of these detachments given? What is said of Harrison's arrangements for the recovery of Detroit?

In pursuance of these arrangements to what place did he send General Winchester? When did he arrive at that post? Why did he move forward to the river Raisin?

When, and by whom, was he attacked at Frenchtown?

(P. 135.) What was the result of the battle? What happened after the battle? What part had the British in that massacre?

What was done by General Dearborn, on the 27th of April?

(P. 136.) Of what barbarous act were the British guilty? What distinguished commander was killed by that explosion? How did his troops behave after his death?

When did the Americans make an attack on Fort George? With what success? By whom was an attempt made upon Sackett's Harbour? How were they received?

What happened at the Beaver Dams?

How did the campaign open on the borders of Lake Erie?

What was done by Harrison after Winchester's defeat? What name was given to the fort? When did the enemy commence the siege of Fort Meigs?

(P. 137.) What was the result of the siege?

What was the American force on Lake Erie? By whom was it commanded? What was the British force? When did the two fleets come to an engagement? What was the character of the action? By what was it decided? How long did it last? In what did it result? What was the effect of the victory?

(P. 138.) How did Harrison hasten to take advantage of this victory? When and where did he overtake the British army? In what did the battle of the Thames terminate? What was taken from the British? What ended with this action?

What happened in the spring of 1813, on the Atlantic frontier? Who was the chief actor in these scenes? In what bolder attempt were the British troops employed? With what success? What town did they give up to plunder? How did they employ themselves during the remainder of the year?

What American ships were taken by the British in 1813? What British ships were taken by the Americans?

(P. 139.) What was the result of an attempt made upon Montreal in the latter part of the year?

When did the Indians of Florida attack Fort Mimms? Give an account of the attack and subsequent massacre? Who was sent to chastise these Indians?

What was done by a detachment of Jackson's army on the 2d of November? What further successes were gained by Jackson in this war? When was the battle of Tohopeka fought? Where was Tohopeka situated? What was the strength of the garrison?

How was the attack commenced? Relate the heroism of Major Montgomery. How did the battle end?

(P. 140.) At what place was a treaty of peace concluded with the Indians?

What was the success of General Wilkinson's incursion into Canada in the spring of 1814? By whom was he superseded?

To whom was the command of the troops on the Niagara frontiers given? What fort did he take on the 2d of July? When did he attack the British position at Chippewa? How did the battle terminate?

When did another battle occur? Where was it fought? By whom were the Americans commanded? What was the result of the battle? To what place did the Americans retire? What was the success of the British in the siege of Fort Erie?

(P. 141.) Against what town did the British general, Prevost, advance? With how many men? Who commanded the militia in Plattsburg? What did they do to retard the approach of the enemy? When did the British enter the town? To what place did the Americans retire?

Who commanded the American squadron on Lake Champlain? When was he attacked by the British fleet? What was the result of the action? What was the condition of both fleets at the close of the action?

(P. 142.) By whom was the battle of Lake Champlain witnessed? What was done by the British in Plattsburg during the naval engagement? What on the succeeding night? What did they leave behind them?

Where did the British land in August 1814?

(P. 143.) Where was a battle fought on the 24th? What is said of the behaviour of General Winder in that battle?

Who commanded the British? Of what city did they take possession? What did they do in Washington?

How was the disgrace, arising from this event, in some measure retrieved? How were the British received in their attempt upon Baltimore? What finally compelled them to withdraw?

What American vessels were captured by the British in 1814? What British vessels were taken? What was proved by these captures?

When had a British flag of truce arrived? What was announced in the despatches brought? Where was it agreed that the commissioners should assemble?

What commissioners were appointed on the part of the United States to commence the business of conciliation?

(P. 144.) What was the effect of the victories of Lake Champlain and Plattsburg on these negotiations? Why was it supposed that the war should before this period have ceased? What insulting proposals were made by the British government as the price of peace?

What state were the enemy preparing to invade in September? Why were the militia unprepared to defend their country? What was there in the nature of the country which made it easy to be defended?

Who was the commander of the district?

(P. 145.) When did he arrive in New Orleans? What effect was produced by his presence?

How soon did the British fleet appear on the coast? What did the invaders succeed in doing on the 22d of December? Did

they follow up their advantage? How did Jackson fortify his post? When did the British general make an unsuccessful attempt to drive Jackson from his post? When did he make another unsuccessful attempt upon the American lines? How were the Americans reinforced? How the British? What was now the whole number of each army?

To whom was the defence of the lines on the right bank of the river intrusted? By whom were the works on the left bank occupied?

When was the final attempt made?

(P. 146.) How did the British columns move forward to the attack? How were they received by the Americans? What was the effect of the warm reception which they received? How many times did they return to the charge? With what success? What was the result of the battle? What was the loss of the British? What that of the Americans? What distinguished British generals were killed in the battle of New Orleans?

When was a treaty of peace signed by the commissioners at Ghent? When was it ratified by the Prince Regent of England? When by the President of the United States?

What was provided for in the treaty of peace?

CHAPTER XVII.

(P. 147.) What advantage had Algiers taken of the English war? How was their insolence chastised?

Who was elected to succeed Mr. Madison in the office of president? When did he enter on the duties of his office?

What atrocities were committed by the Florida Indians during Monroe's administration? Who were sent against them? What put a stop to any further aggressions on the part of the Indians? How were the Spanish authorities in Pensacola punished? For what? What treaty was made with Spain in 1819—21?

(P. 148.) What was provided for in a treaty with Russia in 1824? What in a treaty with England? How was this year further distinguished? When did he arrive? How did he spend the ensuing twelve months? How was he received by the peo-

ple? What did Congress do for him? When did he sail for France?

Why did the choice of president devolve upon the House of Representatives in 1824? Who was chosen by them? When did he enter on the duties of his office?

With whom were treaties concluded during the first two years of his administration? What was provided for in those treaties? What did the Indians receive for their land?

What happened on the 4th of July, 1826?

When was a tariff bill enacted by Congress? What effect did it produce in the Southern states?

(P. 149.) Who was chosen to succeed Mr. Adams in the presidency? Who was chosen vice president? When were they inaugurated?

How was the tariff of 1828 modified in 1832? What effect did that modification produce in the state of South Carolina? How did Jackson meet this warlike disposition of the South? How were these difficulties finally overcome?

What war broke out in 1832? Who was sent against them? When and where was an action fought? What was the result of that and the succeeding action? Who was the chief of the hostile Indians? How long was he kept as a hostage? To what place did he retire?

What was the fate of the bill for rechartering the United States Bank?

(P. 150.) When were the government deposits withdrawn from that institution?

What happened in 1834? When was the whole debt of the United States paid off?

What war broke out in 1835? Who was sent against him?

(P. 151.) When was he attacked? What was the fate of himself and his command? What was the name of the Seminole war chief? Was this war continued through 1836? When did Congress recognise the independence of Texas?

Who was elected in 1836 to succeed General Jackson? When was he inaugurated?

What evil was felt during his administration? How was it in some measure mitigated?

When did the Canadian rebellion break out? What caused an

excitement among the people of the United States? Was the neutrality of the United States preserved?

When did the banks generally resume specie payments? What effects did that produce? When were the boundaries of the United States and Texas fixed? What treaties were concluded in 1838?

(P. 152.) What led to frequent collisions between the governments of Maine and Lower Canada? What was done to settle the dispute? What treaties of commerce were made in 1839? What was the population of the United States in 1840?

Who were the candidates for the presidency in 1840? Who was chosen to that office? Who was elected to the vice presidency? When were they inaugurated?

What was said by Harrison in his inaugural address? When did he die? At what age? How was the grief of the people expressed?

Who now became president? Who vice president? How long did Harrison's cabinet continue in office?

(P. 153.) What law was passed by Congress in 1841? What was done in reference to the "right of search" claimed by Great Britain? What bills were vetoed by the president? When was a modified tariff bill passed?

What special ambassador arrived in the United States in April 1842? With what powers? What was provided for in the treaty which he concluded with the secretary of state? When was the Ashburton treaty ratified by the Senate?

What treaty was rejected by the Senate in 1844? When was a resolution for the annexation of Texas to the United States passed by both houses of Congress?

What candidates presented themselves for the office of president in the autumn of 1844?

(P. 154.) Who was elected? When was he inaugurated? Who was chosen vice president?

What State were efforts made to annex? Who founded the first colony in Texas? Who claimed Texas afterwards? What occurred in the years 1690-2?

(P. 154.) When was Texas added to Spain? When did France regain possession of it? What part did Texas take in the Mexican struggle for independence? Who aided in the contest? What occurred in 1824? What measures did the Mexican government adopt? What occurred in 1832? Who

visited the city of Mexico in August, 1833? For what purpose? What was the result?

(P. 155.) How did the imprisonment of Mr. Austin affect the Texans? What intelligence was received about the time of his release? What did the Texans then do? What course did Santa Anna pursue? Who invaded Texas? What occurred on the 2d of October? What did Capt. Collinsworth do? What was done on the 20th of October? On the 27th? How long was Bexar besieged? What was the result?

(P. 156.) Who succeeded Austin as commander-in-chief of the Texans? What occurred on the 1st of February, 1836? On the 23rd? Whither did the garrison retire? What was the whole number of the Texans at the Alamo? What was the number of the besiegers? How long did the garrison hold out? When were the works carried? What did the Mexicans then do? What was the whole loss of the besiegers? What occurred on the 2d of March? On the 17th? Who was chosen Provisional President?

(P. 157.) What outrages did Gen. Urrea commit? What was the effect of these outrages? Who now arrived? What did General Houston determine to do? What occurred on the 21st of April? Describe the battle? What was the result? What armistice and treaty did Santa Anna conclude? What occurred early in September? Who were elected President and Vice-President?

(P. 158.) What desire did the Texans express? When did the United States recognize the independence of Texas? How was the proposal for annexation treated? What caused a renewal of hostilities? What happened to the expeditions against Mier and Santa Fe? Was Texas generally recognized as a sovereign nation? When was a treaty of annexation concluded? By whom? Was it approved or rejected by the Senate? What bill was introduced after the rejection of the treaty? What strengthened the cause of annexation? When were the joint resolutions for annexing Texas to the United States passed by Congress?

(P. 159.) When were the resolutions approved by the President? To what administration does the credit of the annexation belong?

(P. 160.) What led to a war between the United States and Mexico? What had Gen. Zachary Taylor been ordered to do in the meantime? When did Gen. Taylor reach the Rio Grande? What followed immediately?

(P. 161.) What outrages did the Mexicans commit? What happened on the 10th of April? What information did Gen. Taylor receive on the 26th? What measures did he adopt? What became of Capt. Thornton's party? What occurred soon after these accidents? When did Gen. Taylor march to the relief of Major Monroe?

(P. 163.) Who were left at the river fort? When did Congress declare war? What other measures were adopted by that body? What occurred at the fort opposite Matamoras? When did Gen. Taylor march to its relief? Where did he meet the Mexican army?

(P. 164.) What did Lieut. Blake do? What did the Mexican cavalry attempt? What caused a suspension of hostilities? Was the firing very destructive? When did the battle terminate? What was the loss of the Americans?

(P. 166.) What movement did the Mexicans make on the morning of the 9th of May? What did Gen. Taylor do? What occurred to Capt. M'Call? How were the Mexicans posted? What did Capt. May do? What was the result of the battle?

(P. 167.) What was done at Fort Brown on the approach of Gen. Taylor? What was the marching force of the Americans and Mexicans? What loss did the two armies sustain? What occurred on the 11th of May? When did Gen. Taylor take possession of Matamoras? What did Capt. M'Culloch do? What was Gen. Taylor's force in the latter part of June? When did he march from Matamoras?

(P. 168.) What was done when Gen. Taylor arrived at Ca-

margo? What information did he receive? Against what place did he march? When?

(P. 169.) What was the whole number of Gen. Taylor's army? Describe Monterey? When did the attack begin? What was the order of the besiegers? How long did the siege last?

(P. 171.) What was the result of the siege? What loss did the Americans sustain? What were the terms of the capitulation? What did the United States government order Gen. Taylor to do? Who had been raised to the military dictatorship in the Mexican capital? How large was his army? What did Gen. Taylor determine to do? What occurred on the 30th of December? What was the number of Gen. Taylor's troops in February, 1847?

(P. 172.) Where did Gen. Taylor take up a position? When did the hostile armies meet? What did Santa Anna do? How did the Mexicans commence the battle? Who was left in command of the American army? How did the battle commence on the 23d? Who turned the fortune of the day? What followed?

(P. 174.) How did the battle of Buena Vista terminate? What was discovered the next morning? What was the strength of the two armies in the battle? What loss did they sustain? To what must the victory be attributed? When did Gen. Taylor return to the United States?

(P. 175.) Of what territories did the United States wish to gain possession? What force was raised in the Western States? Who was its commander? When did he commence his march? What did he do in New Mexico? What information did he receive on the borders of New Mexico? What did he then do? What occurred early in December? When and where did Gen. Kearney gain a victory? What occurred on the 29th of December? Where were the Californians posted? In what force? What was the result of the battle?

(P. 177.) What occurred on the 9th of January, 1847? What followed the two battles? Who was appointed military

governor of California? Towards what place did Col. Doniphan march? When and where did he meet the Mexicans? What was the result of the battle?

(P. 178.) When did Col. Doniphan enter El Paso? When did he leave the Paso del Norte? When was the battle of Sacramento fought? Give some account of the position of the Mexicans?

(P. 180.) How did Col. Doniphan begin the attack? Was his fire effective? What changes followed? What did Major Clark do?

(P. 181.) Upon what did the fate of the battle depend? How were the enemy put to the rout? What was the force of the Mexicans engaged in the battle of Sacramento? What was the force under command of Col. Doniphan? What loss did the Mexicans sustain? What was Col. Doniphan's loss? When did Col. Doniphan take possession of Chihuahua? How long did he remain there? When did he march for Saltillo?

(P. 182.) What did Capt. Reid do during the march? When did Col. Doniphan reach Gen. Taylor's encampment? When did they reach New Orleans? What was the decisive movement of the war? Who was ordered to take command of the forces raised for that purpose? What was the whole number of the troops? Who was to co-operate? Was Vera Cruz a strong city? What point was selected for the landing? What was done on the 9th of March? What was done on the 22d? How long did the bombardment and canonnade continue? Who made overtures for a capitulation? What was the result? What did Col. Harvey do during the siege?

(P. 184.) What was the whole loss of the besiegers? When did Gen. Scott commence his march for the city of Mexico? Where were the Mexicans posted? In what strength? When was the attack made? Describe it? What was the result of the battle? What loss did the Americans sustain?

(P. 185.) What towns were captured by vessels of the Gulf squadron? What places were captured by Generals Twiggs and Worth? What occurred on the 15th of May? Who

infested the road between Vera Cruz and Puebla? Who was their commander? What did the guerillas do?

(P. 186.) Who were attacked at the National Bridge? What was the result? How long did Gen. Scott remain at Puebla? What reinforcement did he receive? When did the army descend into the Valley of Mexico? How did Gen. Scott avoid some strong works of the enemy? What was the first object of attack? What force was detached for that purpose? What movements were made on the 19th and 20th of August? What was the result of the conflict? What position was next attacked? What force of Mexicans was there assembled? How was the attack commenced?

(P. 188.) What were the results of the attack on the fortified convent? What did Gen. Shields do? How did the battle terminate? What were the results of the whole day's work according to Gen. Scott?

(P. 189.) What occurred on the night of the 20th? Was the armistice granted? What negotiations were opened? What caused the resumption of hostilities? What was the next point of attack? Who was appointed to execute the plan? When was the attack begun? Who led the assault? What was the result?

(P. 190.) What was the loss of the assailants at Molino del Rey? What was the next object of attack? When was the assault begun? Who commanded the two divisions? Describe Gen. Pillow's movements? Gen. Quitman's movements? What were the results of the capture of Chapultepec?

(P. 191.) What was the loss of the Mexicans at Chapultepec? What did Gen. Scott determine to do? Who commanded the divisions that attacked Mexico? Against what points did they advance? What did Gen. Twiggs do? What was Gen. Worth's success? How did Gen. Quitman proceed?

(P. 193.) How did the attack terminate? What was Worth's loss during the day? What was Quitman's loss? What occurred at Puebla shortly after the capture of Mexico? Who relieved the garrison? What occurred to Gen. Lane during

his march? What did the general-in-chief do in January, 1848? Where did the commissioners meet? What was the result of the negotiations? What did Mexico agree to do? Who superintended the evacuation of Mexico?

(P. 194.) What was the condition of the United States at the close of the Mexican war? How was the Oregon difficulty settled?

(P. 195.) What measures of the Democratic party were carried out by President Polk? Where was a great discovery made soon after the conclusion of the war? Give an account of the first discovery of the gold? What were the immediate results?

(P. 196.) What was found to be the extent of the gold region? What was done in regard to the government of California? Who were elected President and Vice-President in the latter part of 1848? When was Gen. Taylor inaugurated? Who composed the cabinet? Who had a majority in Congress? What subject caused an excitement? What committee was appointed in the Senate? What bill did this committee report? What were the provisions of this bill?

(P. 197.) Were the compromise measures adopted? When did President Taylor die? At what age? Who succeeded him in the Presidency? What was done in regard to the cabinet? What was done in regard to foreign relations during Mr. Fillmore's administration? What expedition sailed from the United States in the spring of 1850? What was the result? When was the attempt renewed? Where did the invaders land? What was their success? How were Col. Crittenden and his men treated? How was Lopez executed? What was done with the other prisoners?

(P. 198.) What difficulty occurred with Portugal? How was it settled? What was done in regard to the Hungarian agent? When did Mr. Webster die? Who succeeded him? Who were elected President and Vice-President in the fall of 1852? When was Mr. Pierce inaugurated? Who composed his cabinet?

(P. 199.) What treaty had Lord John Russell proposed? What was Secretary Everett's reply? What followed? What occurred in June, 1853? By whom was Koszta rescued? What did the government of Austria do in regard to the Koszta affair? What did Secretary Marcy reply? Was Koszta completely released? What is said of the relations between the United States and Austria?

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
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
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
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